CLARKE'S

TEXT-BOOK

ON

EMBALMING.

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A.L. Bell circa 1885

Portrait frontispiece

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6 anatomical plates printed in 3 colours.

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Professionally Yours
J. H. Clarke

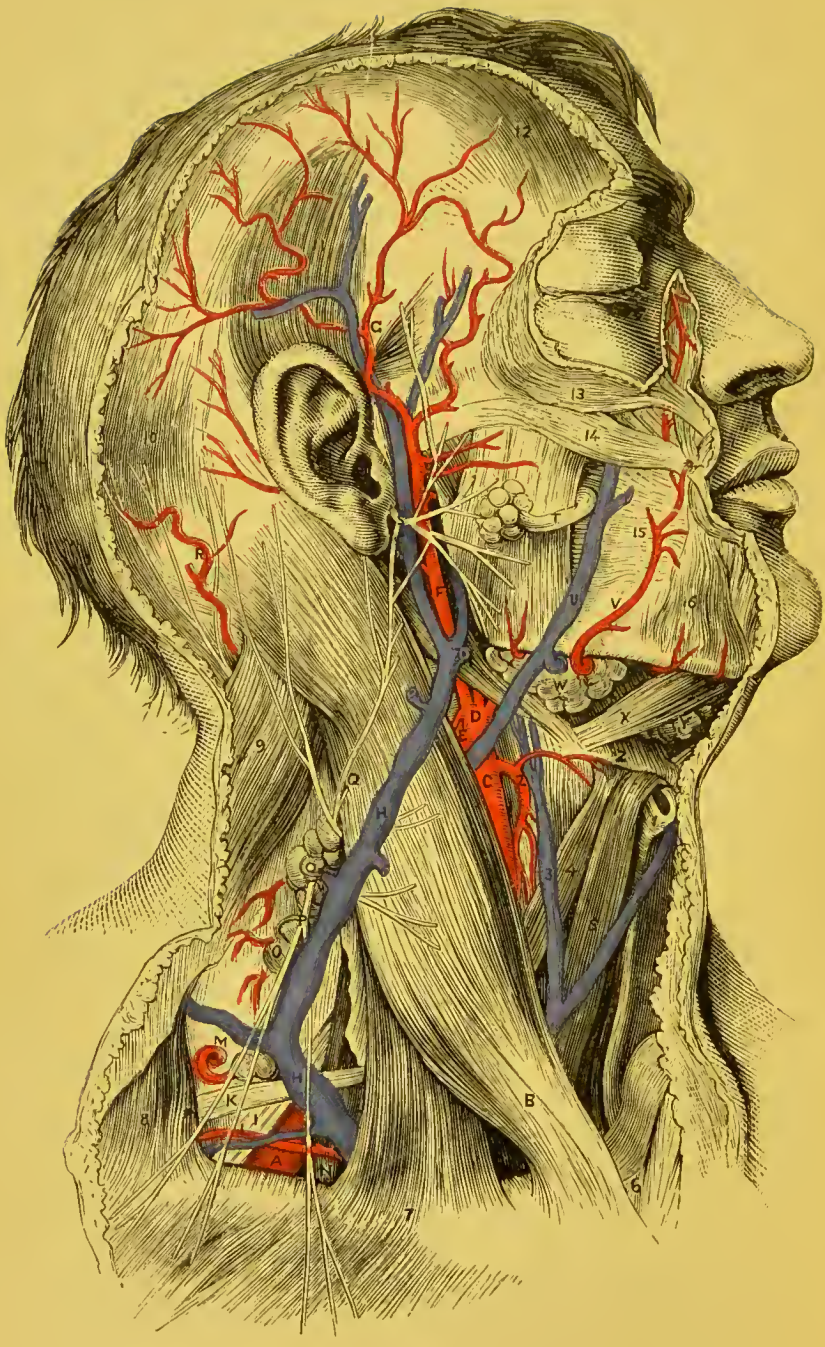

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PLATE I.

A. Third portion of the Sub-Clavian Artery.
B. Sterno-Mastoid Muscle.
C. Common Carotid Artery.
D. External Carotid Artery.
E. Internal Carotid Artery.
F. Continuation of the External Carotid Artery.
G. Temporal Artery.
H. External Jugular Vein.
K. Lower Portion of Omo-Hyoid Muscle.
L. Suprascapular Artery, branch of Sub-Clavian.
M. Transverse Cervical Artery.
R. Occipital Artery and Nerve.
U. Facial Vein.
V. Facial Artery.
Z. Hyoid Bone.
2. Superior Thyroid Artery.
3. Anterior Jugular Vein (front or before).
4. Upper Part of Omo-Hyoid Muscle.
5. Right Sterno-Hyoid Muscle.
6. Inter-Clavicle Notch—where the two clavicles come together, forming the Sternum Bone.
7. Clavicle or Collar Bone.

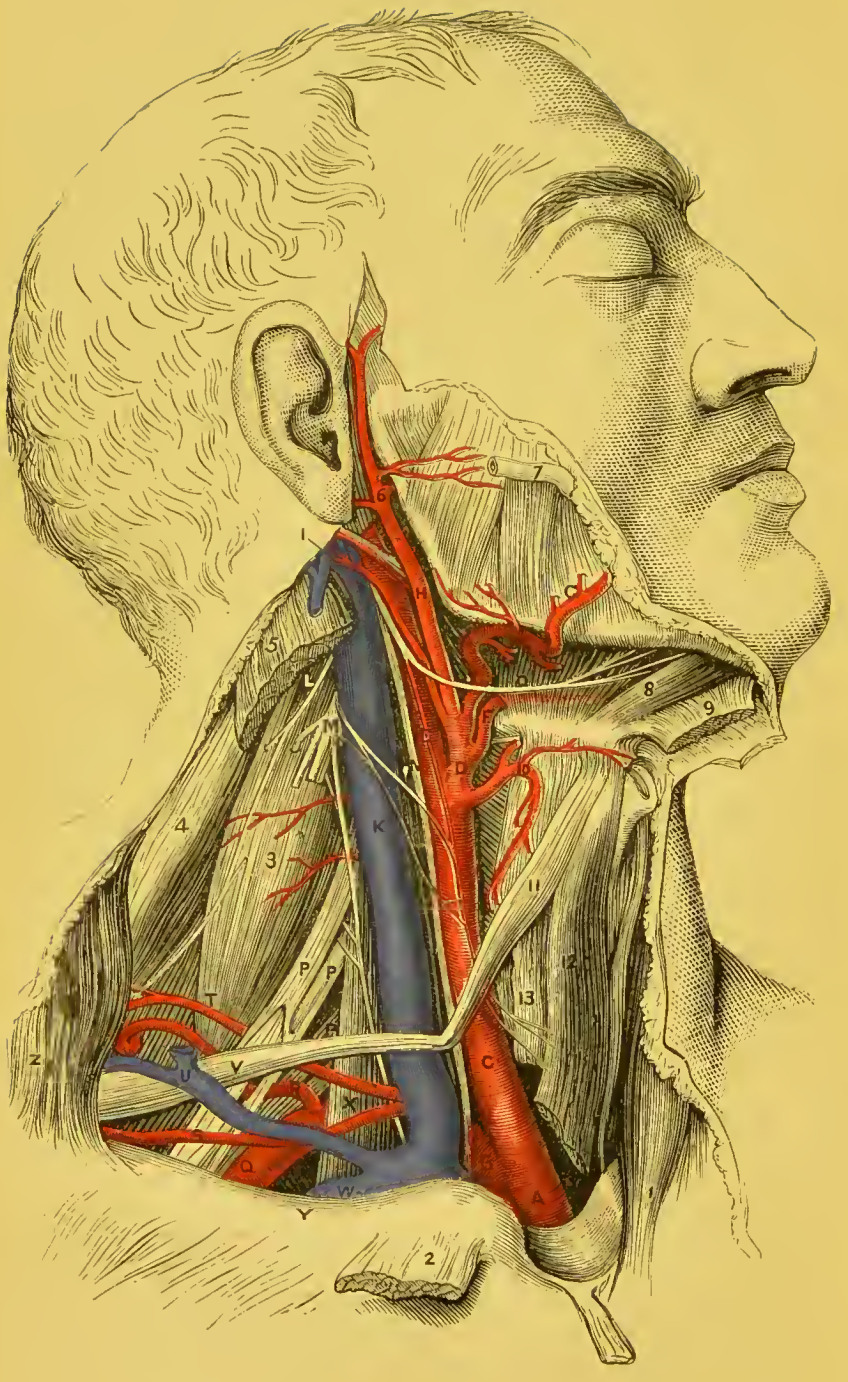

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PLATE II.

Illustrating the Carotid Arteries and Internal Jugular Vein.

A. Innominate Artery, forming the Right Common Carotid and Sub-Clavian Arteries.
B. Right Sub-Clavian Artery.
C. Right Common Carotid Artery.
D. External Carotid Artery.
E. Internal Carotid Artery.
F. Lingual Artery.
G. Facial Artery.
H. Temporal Artery.
I. Occipital Artery.
K. Internal Jugular Vein.
N. Pneumo-Gastric Nerve, lying between the Artery and Vein.
Q. Sub-Clavian Artery, third part.
R. Branch of Sub-Clavian, Posterior Scapular Artery.
S. Branch of Sub-Clavian, Supra Scapular Artery.
T. Branch of Sub-Clavian, Superficial Cervical Artery.
U. Branch of Sub-Clavian Vein, Supra Scapular Vein.
V. Posterior Part of Omo-Hyoid Muscle.
W. Sub-Clavian Vein.
Y. Clavicle or Collar Bone.
1. Left Sterno Mastoid Muscle.
2. Right Sterno Mastoid Muscle (cut).
5. Upper part of Right Sterno Mastoid Muscle (cut).
6. Internal Maxillary Artery, a branch of the External Carotid.
11. Upper and inner part of Omo-Hyoid Muscle.
12. Sterno-Hyoid Muscle.
13. Sterno-Thyroid Muscle.

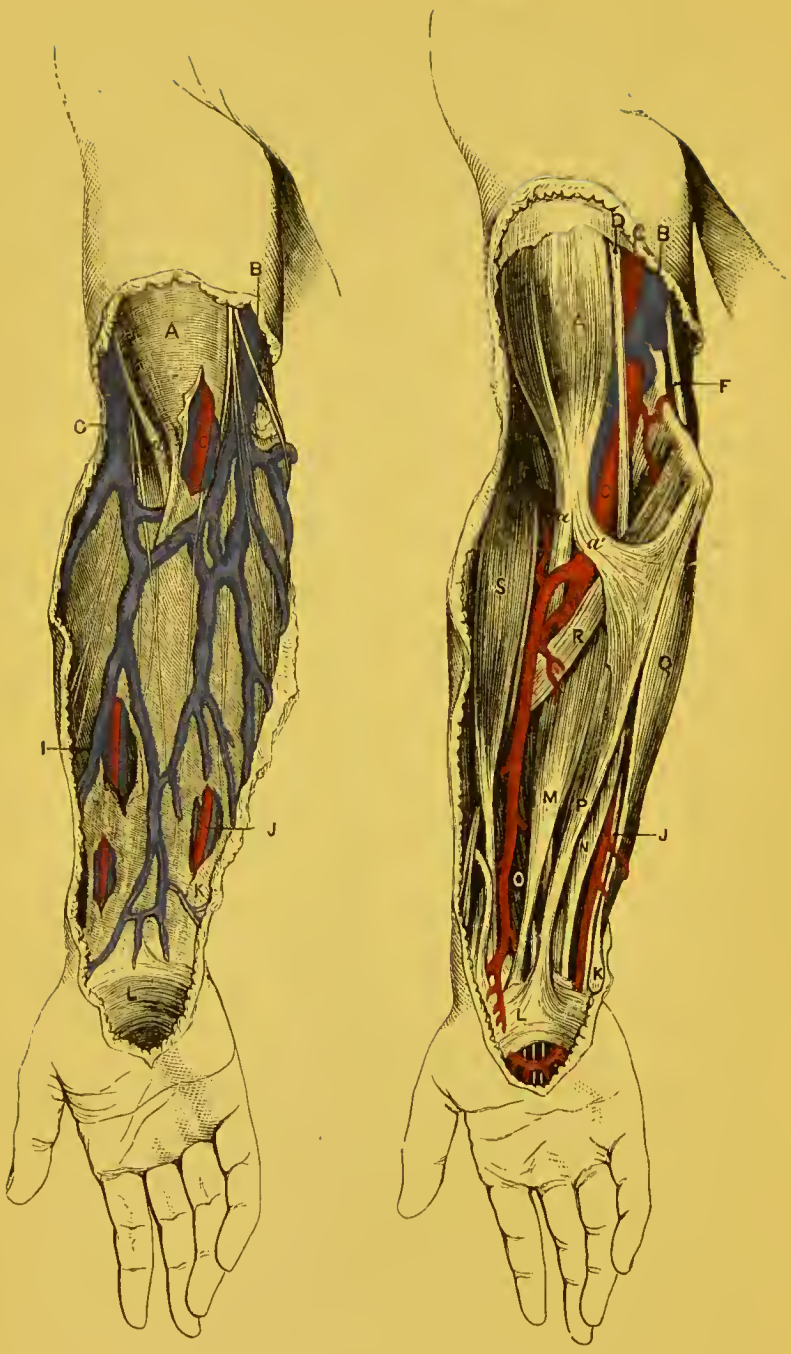

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PLATE III.

Showing the Brachial Artery and Veins of the Arm.

A. Bieeps Muscle.
B. Basilic Vein.
C. Braehial Artery.
D. Median Nerve.
E. Median Basilie Vein.
F. Ulnar Nerve.
G. Cephalic Vein.
H. Ulnar Artery, upper.
I. Radial Artery.
J. Ulnar Artery, lower.
K. Fascia of Forearm.
aa. Tendons of Biceps Muscle.
a. Faseia over the Biceps Musele, or the deep faseia that covers over Brachial Artery and Veins.

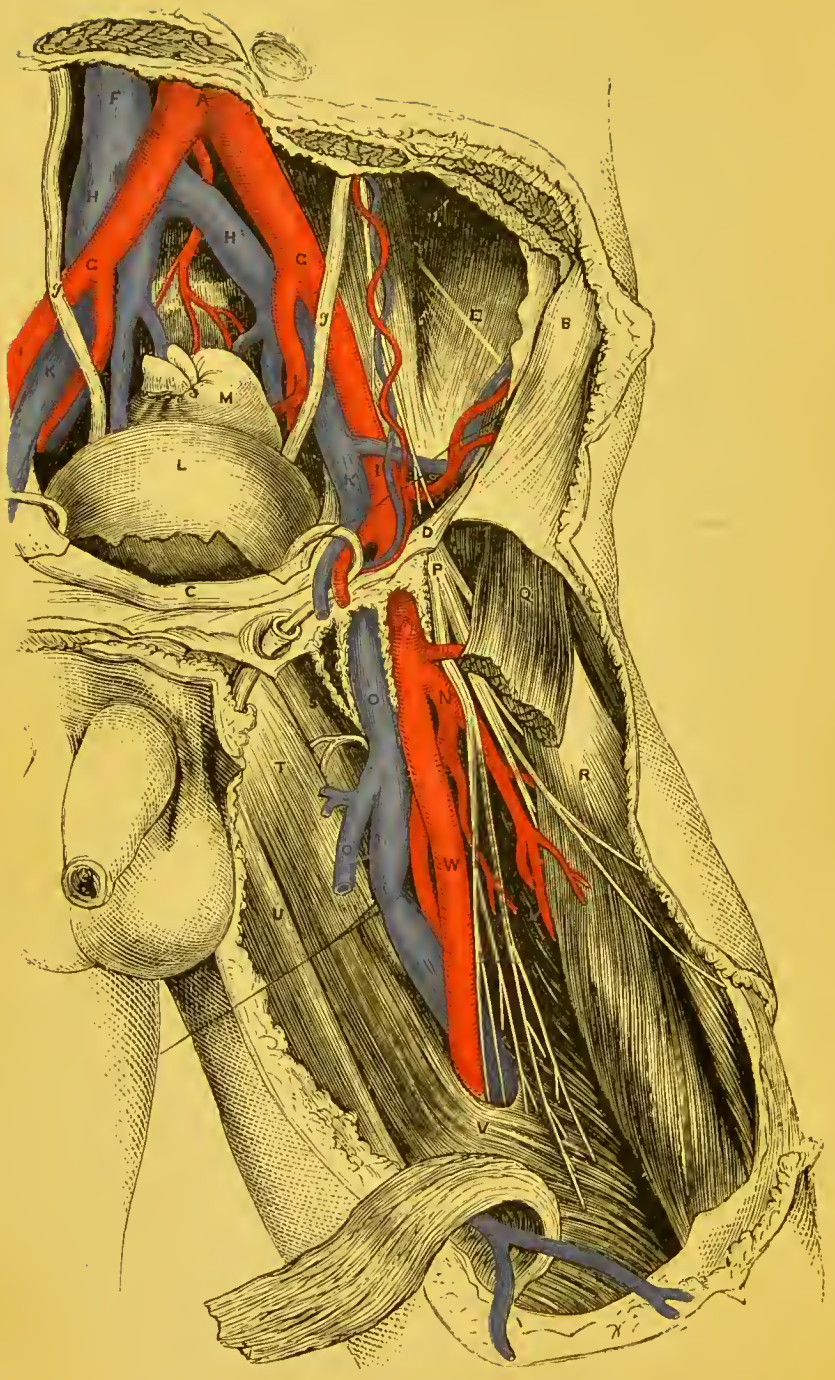

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PLATE IV.

Showing the Femoral Artery and Vein, also Iliac Arteries and Veins.

A. The Aorta, where it divides into the right and left Com. Iliac.
B. Anterior Superior Iliac Spine or front and inner process of the Hip Bone.
C. Pubes or Pubic Bone.
D. Poupart's Ligament.
E. External Cutaneous Nerve.
F. Abdominal or Inferior Vena Cava.
GG. Right and left Common Iliac Arteries.
HH. Right and left Common Iliac Veins.
II. Right and left External Iliac Arteries.
KK. Right and Left External Iliac Veins.
L. Bladder (thrown up).
M. The Rectum (ligated).
N. Profunda Femoris or Deep Femoral Artery.
O. Femoral Vein drawn from its natural position (at this point it underlies the artery).
o. Saphenous (or Superficial) Vein.
Q. Sartorius (or Tailor's) Muscle.
R. Rectus Femoris—a muscle in the fore part of the thigh.
S. Pectineous Muscle (is not used in connection with raising the artery)
T. Adductor Longus Muscle, forms the inner boundary of Scarpa's Triangle.
V. Hunter's Canal, channel for Femoral Artery and Vein.
W. Femoral Artery.

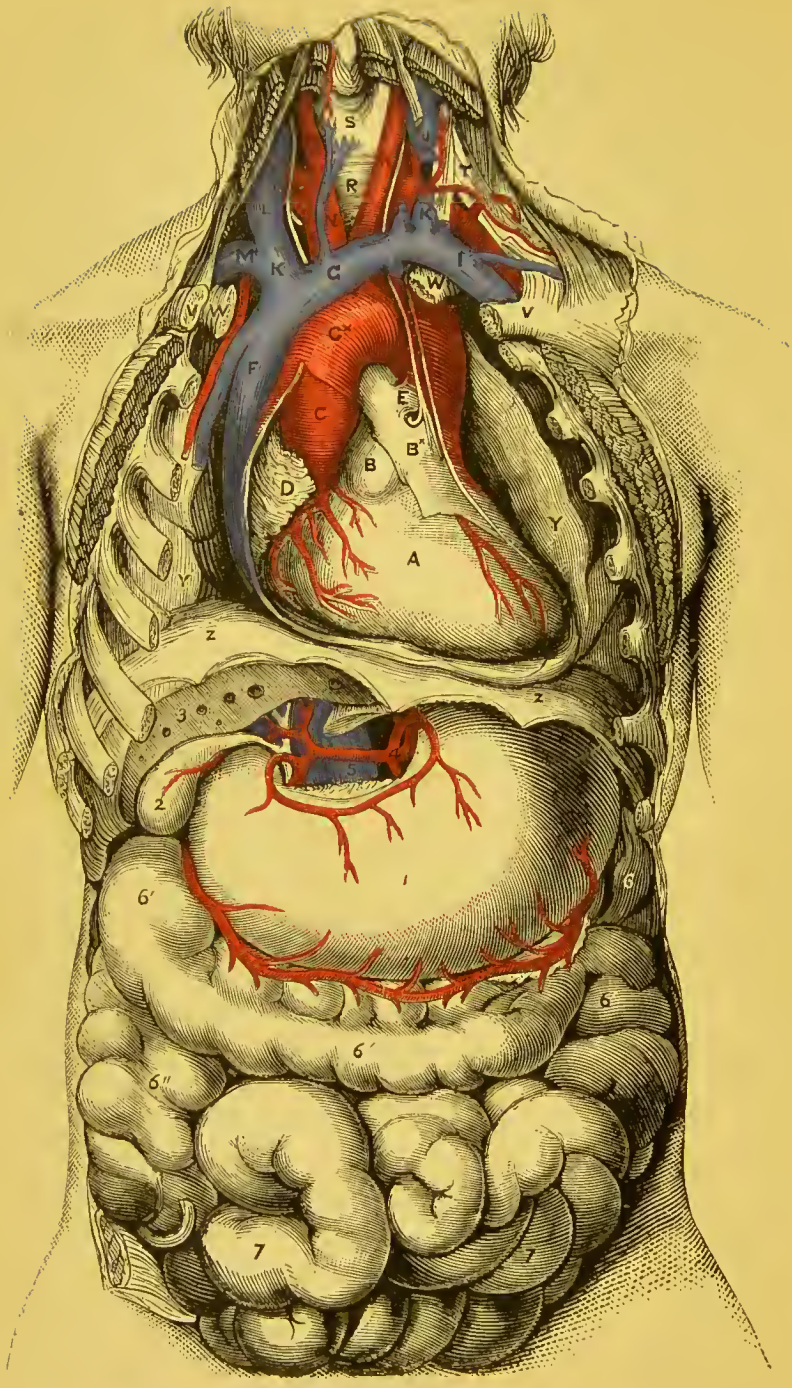

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PLATE V.

Superficial Parts of Organs in Thoracic and Abdominal Cavities.

A. Right Ventricle of the Heart.
B. Pulmonary Artery.
C. Ascending Arch of the Aorta Artery.
*e. Transverse Arch of the Aorta Artery.
D. Appendage to the Right Auricle of the Heart.
E. Arterial Duct.
F. Superior (or Thoracic) Vena Cava.
G. Left Brachio-Cephalic Vein.
H. Left Common Carotid Artery.
I. Left Sub-Clavian Vein.
K. Left Internal Jugular Vein (cut), lower.
L. Right Internal Jugular Vein.
M. Right Sub-Clavian Vein.
N. Innominate Artery.
O. Left Sub-Clavian Artery.
P. Right Sub-Clavian Artery.
Q. Right Common Carotid Artery.
S. Thyroid Body.
T. Brachial Plexus Muscle.
U. Left Internal Jugular Vein (cut), upper.
VV. Clavicle, (Collar Bone,) cut.
W. First Rib.
YY. Right and Left Lungs (cut).
ZZ. Diaphragm—the partition between the two cavities.
1. Stomach, with Gastric Arteries surrounding.
2. Gall Bladder.
3. Liver (right lobe) cut, supplied by Hepatic Artery.
4. Coeliac Axis Artery, dividing into Gastric, Hepatic and Splenic Arteries.
5. Inferior (or Abdominal) Vena Cava Vein.
6. Spleen, supplied by Splenic Artery.
6′. Large Intestine.
6″. Cadut Caecum Coli—a portion of the large intestine.
7-7. Small Intestine.

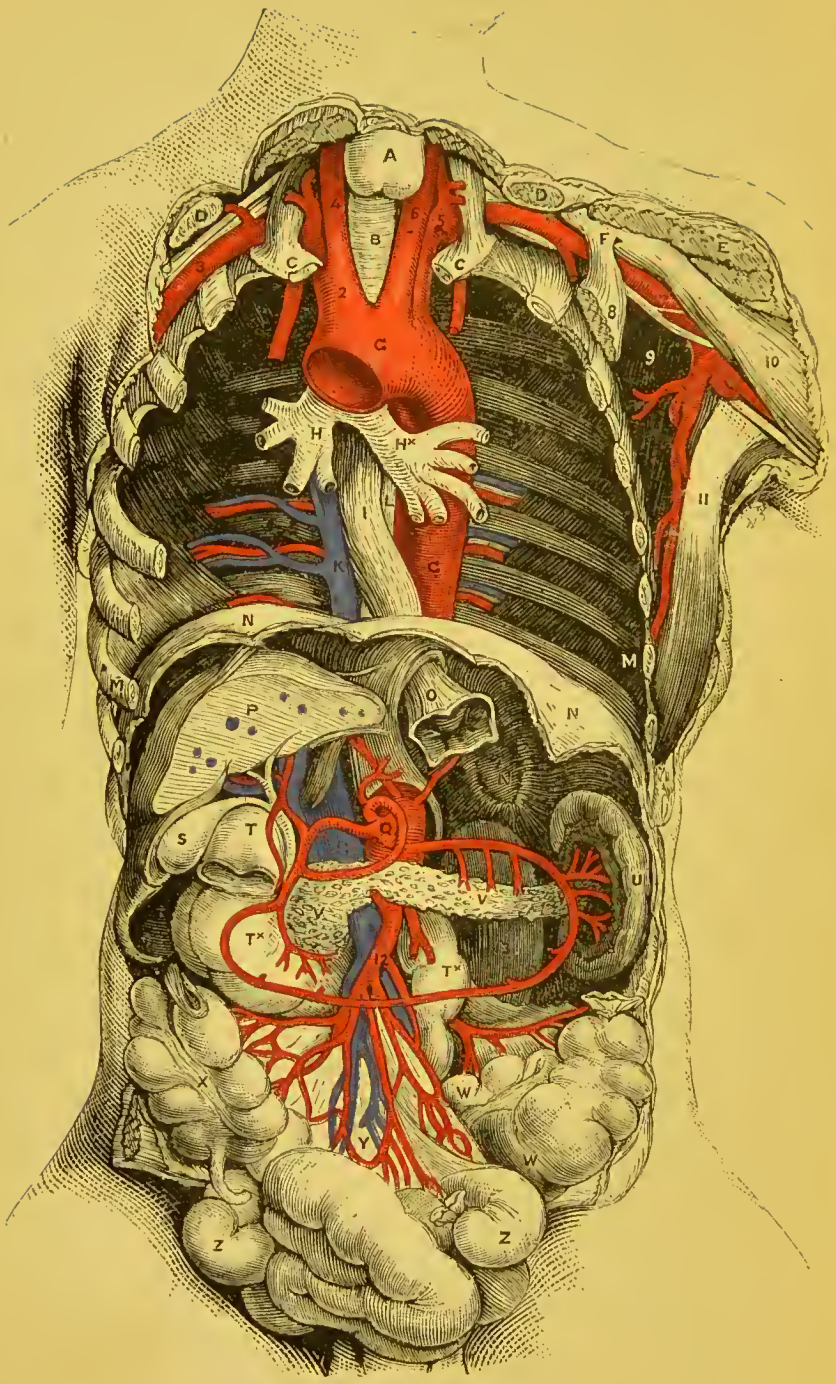

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PLATE VI.

A. Body of Thyroid Gland.
B. Trachea (Windpipe).
C. First Rib.
DD. Clavicle (Collar Bone)..
E. Pectoralis Major—large Pectoral Muscle.
F. Coracoid Process.
G. Arch of Aorta Artery.
H. Right Bronchial Tube, with branches.
H*. Left Bronchial Tube, with branches.
I. Oesophagus, or Passage into the Stomach.
K. Large Azygos Vein.
L. Thoracic Duct.
M. Seventh Rib.
NN. Diaphragm.
O. Cardiac Orifice of Stomach.
P. Liver (cut), showing the course of Hepatic Veins.
Q. Cocliac Axis Artery, giving off three branches.
R. Superior (or Thoracic) Vena Cava Vein.
S. Gall Bladder.
T. Pyloric End of the Stomach, where it empties into the intestines.
T*, Duodenum—first division of the small intestines.
U. Spleen, with branches of Splenic Artery.
V. Pancreas—a gland lying behind the Stomach and Spleen.
W. Sigmoid Flexure of Colon—the Intestine near the Rectum.
X. Caput Caecum Coli—the largest Intestine: the Colon.
Y. The Messentery, with branches of the Messenteric Artery and Veins.
ZZ. Small Intestines.
2. Innominate Artery.
3. Right Sub-Clavian Artery.
4. Right Common Carotid Artery.
5. Left Sub-Clavian Artery.
6. Left Common Carotid.
7. Left Axillary Artery.
8. Small Pectoral Muscle.
10. Biceps Muscle.
12. Inferior Messenteric Artery.
13. Left Kidney.

CLARKE'S

TEXT-BOOK ON EMBALMING,

——ILLUSTRATING AND DESCRIBING——

THE ANATOMY OF THE HUMAN BODY AS IS NEEDED BY THE PROFESSIONAL OR EXPERT EMBALMER;

——ALSO,——

TREATMENT OF BODIES DYING FROM ALL THE VARIOUS CAUSES,

——TOGETHER WITH THE——

BEST AND MOST CORRECT METHODS OF CAVITY INJECTING FOR TEMPORARY PRESERVATION,

THE CAUSES, SYMPTOMS AND TREATMENT OF PYEMIA (BLOOD POISONING), SEPTICEMIA, ETC.,

AND INCLUDES A CHAPTER ON FUNERAL ETIQUETTE, CODE OF ETHICS, AND SUCH PARLIAMENTARY RULES AS ARE USED IN GOVERNING PUBLIC MEETINGS, CONVENTIONS, ETC.

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TO THE PROGRESSIVE MEMBERS OF THE
PROFESSION OF FUNERAL DIRECTORS
AND EMBALMERS OF AMERICA,
THIS VOLUME IS RESPECT-
FULLY DEDICATED,

BY THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

In preparing this volume, which is the author's third effort, for the profession of America, the subject matter has been treated with as much care and attention as could be gathered together in the ten years' practical experience and constant observations of those with whom I have come in contact.

In the anatomical illustrations, which have been produced with great care, as well as the descriptive, omitting many technical terms and supplanting the common ones in their proper relation, all who read may easily comprehend their meaning. In the various treatments it has been the object to make plain and clear every feature given and to state nothing but what has been demonstrated repeatedly by the author and hundreds of others who have received his instructions. It has been the aim in the production of this work, as in every other device, to facilitate the profession in the rapid and onward march, to consider the value of simplicity and practicability, as well as durability, sparing neither pains, time nor money in producing the very best of everything needed by the novice or the expert embalmer. In the study of anti-septic chemicals the whole world has been our field, and our knowledge gained largely by practical experience has been of great value in preparing for the profession a preparation that has proven a standard everywhere introduced. If in the completion of this work the wants of the progressive Funeral Director has been met, I will then have accomplished the one great object which I have long and earnestly sought.

THE AUTHOR.

CLARKE'S TEXT-BOOK ON EMBALMING.

THE TRUNK OF THE BODY.

The body from the base of the neck down to the groin or lower extremity of the abdomen is called the trunk. This trunk is divided into two distinct cavities by the diaphragm, which crosses the inside of the body at the lower end of the breast bone. The diaphragm does not cross straight or direct, but inclines downwards as it reaches the back, and is a partition wall that divides these two cavities as distinct as two apartments or rooms with a solid wall between them.

The thoracic cavity is above the diaphragm and contains the right and left lungs and the heart, which occupies a space between the two lungs. The heart is cone-shaped with the base upwards. The point or apex extends downwards, outwards and to the left. The location of the point may be determined by measuring from the nipple on the left side of the breast downwards two inches, and inwards towards the center of the body one inch. The base extends upwards, backwards and to the right. More of the heart lies to the left side of the body than to the right. The right and left lungs fill the balance of the cavity.

Below the diaphragm, and in the abdominal cavity, we have the liver, which is the largest organ. The right lobe, which is the largest, extends from the right side to the center of the body or a little beyond. The left lobe is much smaller, extends to the left and partly covers the stomach, being that organ lying to the left and partly over the spleen, which lies still to the left of the stomach. The kidneys, which occupy a space on each side of the vertebræ or backbone, are lower down. The intestines fill up the remainder of the cavity, except the bladder in the male and the womb and bladder in the female. This constitutes the organs in the trunk of the body, but a more thorough description of each will be given separately. It is important that the embalmer should be familiar with all

these organs, as it will very materially aid him in the art of embalming; consequently we give a careful and minute description of each.

ORGANS IN TRUNK OF BODY.

THE HEART,

Which has been described as occupying a space between the right and left lungs and the point or apex extending downwards, outwards and to the left, and the base upwards, backwards and to the right shoulder, likewise occupies a space a little to the left of the median line of the body. For sake of description we say the heart is divided into four compartments or spaces called ventricles and auricles. The two upper are known as right and left auricles, and the two lower the right and left ventricles. The right side of the heart we know as the venous side and contains the venous blood, or the blood that comes from the trunk veins. The left is the arterial side and contains the pure blood as it is returned from the lungs purified. At the upper part of the right auricle the descending vena cava empties the impure blood that is drained from the arms, shoulders, neck and head. Just below this and in the same auricle the ascending vena cava empties and drains the impure blood from the trunk, abdominal organs and lower extremities. This impure blood then passes from the right auricle to the right ventricle, from which it is taken through the pulmonary artery to the right and left lungs, where it is purified, as we have mentioned before. From the right ventricle we draw the blood in cases that die with a large quantity of blood.

In describing the lungs we say that at every beat of the heart two ounces of blood were sent out through the entire body. By this powerful little organ, the heart, no less than twenty-eight pounds of blood, in a common sized body, is sent three times every hour through the lungs. Thus seventy-four pounds of blood pass and repass every hour, giving out carbonic acid and watery vapor and receiving the life-inspiring oxygen in return.

THE LUNGS.

The lining membrane of each air cell of the lungs is covered by a network of minute blood vessels called capillaries, which,

when magnified several hundred times, appear much like a cobweb with its myriads of branches. Every air cell has a blood vessel that brings blood from the heart, which meanders through its capillaries till it reaches another blood vessel that carries it back to the heart. In this passage of the blood through these capillaries, the air in the air cell imparts its oxygen to the blood, and receives in exchange carbonic acid and watery vapor. These latter are expired at every breath into the atmosphere. By calculating the number of air cells in a small portion of the lungs under a microscope, it has been ascertained that there are no less than eighteen millions of these wonderful little purifiers and feeders of the body. By their ceaseless ministries, every grown person receives, each day, thirty-three hogsheads of air into the lungs to nourish and vitalize every part of the body, and also to carry off its impurities.

This impure blood that passes to the capillaries of the air cells in the lungs, where it gives off carbonic acid, takes on oxygen from the air, then returns to the left or arterial side of the heart, from whence it is sent out through the aorta and its myriad branching arteries to every part of the body. It is known, too, that every beat of the heart sends two ounces of blood into the minute, hair-like blood vessels called capillaries that line these air cells, where the air in the air cells gives off its oxygen to the blood, and in its place receives carbonic acid. Truly the working machinery of man is proof that we are wonderfully and fearfully made.

We have largely described the lungs and their office and condition; how they are supplied with blood in life and with fluid at death, which the reader will find in the treatment of lung diseases, excepting the pleura, which is a thin membranous tissue that covers over the lungs. The pleura is that structure affected when there is congestion and that gives us pain in pleurisy, and covers each separate lung, attaching in the center of the breast bone to the pericardium or heart's sack, thus making a distinct covering for each lung, and makes for each lung a separate and distinct cavity, so when you inject over the right lung you do not inject the left, and in order to reach the cavity of each lung you must inject over each. These two cavities are also separated by the

PERICARDIUM

(Or heart's sack), which covers or encloses the heart in a sack

or pocket; is attached to the sternum or breast bone in the front, passing upwards and around the heart to the lower part and then is intimately conneeted with and becomes a part of the diaphragm. In case of dropsy of the heart we puncture the diaphragm at the center of the body just below the sternum or breast bone, which is deseribed in treatment for dropsy.

THE DIAPHRAGM.

This strueture, which is a thin membranous tissue, is attaehed to the front, back and sides of the body—in the front to the lower part of the breast bone, attaching itself to the sides along the lower ribs, and inclining downwards, attaehing itself to the back bone, thus making two distinct cavities.

THE LIVER

Is the large strueture mentioned before and is fully deseribed in the chapter on the trunk of the body. Is supplied in life with blood by the hepatic artery, and the blood is drained off by the hepatic vein. In death the fluid reaches the liver by the same artery and impregnates the blood through the same vein by means of the capillaries; thus this large organ becomes thoroughly preserved by means of these results, and is the only correct way to treat a ease of enlarged or diseased liver.

THE STOMACH

Is the next organ, and its space is familiarly known, and by some is eonsidered the cause of more trouble than any other organ in life or death. It is a mistaken idea that you injeet the cavity of the stomach by simply pushing the trocar into the abdomen and injeeting fluid into it. The correct principle will be given in "Partial or Cavity Embalming." The gastric artery supplies the stomach with blood in life as it does the fluid in death. Do not understand that the cavity of the stomach becomes filled through the artery, but simply the outer and inner walls. This, however, is generally sufficient to destroy the ordinary amount of gases accumulating there without injecting directly into it. There are other arteries that supply the stomach in addition to the gastric. The gastric veins are the ones that drain the impure blood.

THE SPLEEN,

Occupying a position underneath and still to the left of the

stomach, is supplied by the splenic artery, and is large in size and carries fluid enough to effectually preserve it without the aid of cavity injection, except, perhaps, in case where the spleen is considerably diseased. The office of this organ is not definitely known, although many theories are given. It is well to say right here that the gastric, hepatic and splenic arteries all come off a short branch (the cœliac axis, which comes directly from the abdominal aorta) are very prominent and readily seen in dissections and post mortems.

THE INTESTINES,

Usually the most troublesome element or organ in the abdominal cavity, fill up the remaining portion of the abdomen, except the pelvic region. These are the large intestines which are supplied with the superior mesenteric artery, and the small intestines which the inferior mesenteric artery supplies. The mesentery, which is a thin web-like structure, and holds the intestines in their crimped position, contains hundreds of small branches of these mesenteric arteries that supply the outer and inner walls of the intestines, and will generally destroy all the gases found in the intestines. We give, however, a special treatment for gases in the intestines, which will be found in the chapter on cavity embalming.

THE KIDNEYS,

That lie on either side of the vertebræ or backbone, are supplied by the renal arteries, both of which come off the abdominal aorta. The renal veins are those that drain the kidneys. The importance of arterial embalming will be readily recognized when these organs are involved, as in cases of Bright's disease and all urinary and kidney diseases.

THE BLADDER

Is located in the pelvic region, between the right and left common iliac arteries; is anterior or lower down when empty, and when distended with urine rises and fills a larger portion of the abdomen. Among the several arteries that supply this organ the uterine is most prominent.

THE WOMB,

Located in the pelvic region and above the bladder, is of little trouble, except in cases of cancer or in pregnancy, when the

subject dies before the child is delivered. We have no positive evidence that to inject the arteries of the subject that the child also receives the injection, and it is recommended to use the trocar and puncture the womb from the lower part of the abdomen or at the highest point. It may be well while the trocar is in, and before you inject, to turn the body on its side to allow water, if any exists, to pass off, after which inject as much fluid as the womb will hold. The uteris and vagina of the female, as well as the penis and scrotum in the male, are all supplied with arteries, which, with those of the womb, come off the iliacs and branches. Having described as minutely as is necessary the organs of the trunk of the body for the embalmer's use, it is well to ask that you read carefully and as often as is necessary to become familiar with the anatomy herein given, as it will help you very much to readily decide on the treatment of the case when you have had the diagnosis, or cause of death, which you should always obtain when practicable.

THE BRAIN,

Located inside of the head or skull, is very vascular, and the tissues can only be reached successfully by the arteries. The internal carotids, right and left, and the vertebral, which runs up the back part of the neck, are the prominent ones that go to and supply the brain with blood in life and also the fluid in death. These vessels are all large and convey the fluid there very rapidly when using either artery. The brain is sometimes injected by driving the trocar into the inner corner of the eye and pointing the instrument slightly upwards. You can sometimes relieve the brain from some blood by turning the head to one side, allowing it to run out through the trocar by gravitation. It is important to use the arteries when injecting a body dying from all fevers, especially those of the brain.

PARTIAL OR CAVITY EMBALMING.

There are many cases that can be kept very successfully by this method, and usually for two or three days this process is all that is required, but it should be done with care and correctness. In this mode of treatment it will be well to mention the fact that each lung has its own separate cavity from the other, being separated by the pleura and the pericardium; thus

each cavity should be injected. Nor does the fluid injected to, or around, the lungs get to the abdominal cavity. The diaphragm, which is attached to the front of the body at the lower part of the sternum or breast-bone, also to the sides and back of the body, is the partition that entirely separates these two large cavities. To inject the thoracic or upper cavity introduce the trocar about an inch below the sternum bone and in the center of the body, pointing towards the right, but should be over the lung and just under the ribs; the same operation should be made with the left. To inject the cavity surrounding the heart, point the instrument directly upwards, and as soon as you have punctured the diaphragm, you are inside the cavity. These operations will effectually enable you to inject the entire upper cavity. To inject the abdominal cavity the same incision can be used by pointing the instrument to the center and towards the lower part of the abdomen, and also to each side of the body. Remember the rod should be pushed clear in while you are puncturing, except when you are making the first incision. Different bodies will require different amounts of fluid, owing to size and condition—from one to four quarts. There are two ways of getting into the cavity of the stomach. The usual way is to introduce the trocar into the abdomen an inch above the umbilicus or navel, and point it towards the lower left rib. (Remember the stomach lies on the left side.) If the stomach is distended with gases or food, the trocar will easily enter. If not, it is liable to pass through both walls and your fluid will pass through and get outside. The successful way is to inject the mouth or nostrils, the latter being preferable on account of the curve at the throat at that point, which is larger and longer than through the mouth, and besides the mouth may be closed. The best instrument for this purpose is a flexible hard rubber nasal tube, whose curve may be changed readily and thus meet every requirement. This being the quickest, safest and most positive method of injecting, it is recommended as the one to be used. The face should be covered with a cloth saturated with the fluid. If in using Clarke's Anti-Septic, it may be diluted with one-third or one-half water. The cloth should cover the face and ears, pressing the cloth down to the eyes and around the nose. Another should be put around the neck and one larger over the breast, as also one over the abdomen. The cloths should be kept saturated for at least twenty-four hours, or longer if necessary.

The abdomen should not be neglected. In the male tie a string around the penis, and the female should be bandaged in the form of a diaper. Do not forget the value of the incline, and in emptying the stomach never allow the head to get below the trunk of the body, as this will cause a flow of blood to the head. Turn the body over on its side with the mouth downwards, press on the abdomen with the knee and force out the contents. To allow the gases to escape and save any unpleasantness, to the large end of the trocar place a larger rubber tubing and the other end in a bowl or bottle containing the fluid. The gas passing out through the trocar and into the fluid will be neutralized and effectually destroy every form of bad odor, thus preventing its escape into the room. The same fluid may be injected into the cavity and have the same preservative qualities as before it had destroyed the gas. If the gas should be inside the intestines, an incision made in the lower part of the abdomen, about midway between the navel and pubic bone from one to two inches long, cutting through the abdominal wall and down to the intestines, you will find them ready to come out. You should then raise them, laying them on the belly. With the scissors make an incision in the intestine and tie the largest size arterial tube in, over which place the rubber hose, and allow it to enter the bottle or bowl containing the fluid, and proceed as in relieving gases from the cavity. After the gases have all or nearly passed out inject from a half pint to a pint of fluid in the intestines, and tie up, allowing space in the intestine for the fluid to circulate. Hold the intestines up so the fluid will run back in the ones inside the abdomen, and then push them all back in the opening and sew it up. This will positively prevent any further formation of gases, and you can rest assured of having good results from the operation, provided your fluid is a good one. By reading the different kinds of cases and their treatment you will be able to get the general idea of manipulating every form and character of cases requiring your attention. It is very desirable to understand how to raise the arteries and a fair knowledge of the circulation of the fluids in death, so you may have an intelligent idea of what you are doing. If you are not now proficient in this art, you will continue to want to learn more of it, and a progressive man in his business will not stop at a partial knowledge of his occupation, but will eagerly grasp everything he can get to further his knowledge and interest.

EMBALMING CHILDREN.

The anatomy of the arteries in children, especially those ranging from one day to one year old, is different from adults, in that the common carotid artery is from two to six times as large as the femoral and from four to eight times as large as the brachial. In embalming children it is well to use the brachial artery, provided your arterial tube is small enough. If not, the femoral artery might be used, unless the neck can be dressed high enough to use the common carotid artery. The latter is always the best in cases of children if the objection to the wound can be obviated. Arterial injection in children is seldom necessary except in case for transportation a long distance, or the body is to be kept for from one to four weeks. Usually the tissues of children are so tender that it is only necessary to inject the stomach through the nostrils and in the cavities (the upper and lower) and a cloth saturated with the diluted solution of the Anti-Septic covered over the face and hands.

Many times splendid results are produced with simply a saturated cloth placed over the chest and abdomen and over the face, with one wrapped around the neck. On the face, hands and neck the fluid should be diluted with at least one-half water. On the other parts the pure fluid may be used. Always place the body on an incline. The common carotid artery may be raised low enough down on the neck to prevent its being seen, if a little care is used in the operation. The anatomy will be the same as in an adult, but a little finer work is required. Carefully avoid rupturing the internal jugular vein, and in case you do, your remedy is to ligate above and below the incision made. Be neat and careful always.

THE FEMORAL ARTERY

May be used with every degree of success, provided the child is thin and emaciated, as is often the case, starting the incision one to one and a half inches below Poupart's ligament, avoiding the branches coming off the femoral artery, as also the saphenous and femoral vein. Have the body on an incline and inject very slowly, say one-half to one pint of fluid, or more if the artery will take it easily. Avoid flushing the face. If the cause of death is inflammation of the bowels, the abdominal injection and a little down the nostrils into the stomach may be advantageous. Don't forget the danger of

discoloring the face in using the femoral artery. If the case should be one where a superabundance of blood exists, the heart may be tapped, on the same principal as in adults, using a small trocar. The same landmarks may be used as in adults, except that the distance from the sternum bone must be less

THE BRACHIAL ARTERY

Will be found lying in the same position as in adults—on the inner and under border of the biceps muscle. The anatomy is the same, but the artery will of course be much smaller than the femoral, and care should be used in the operation not to injure it. The injection must necessarily be very slow; for this purpose the author has prepared a special small tube which is attachable to either the pump or bulb syringe. The same treatment as to the abdominal or thoracic cavities, as also injecting the stomach, may be used with the brachial as the femoral or common carotid artery. It is advisable to embalm a child occasionally in the arteries, in order to keep in practice, when an occasion may require you to do so. In a few words, make every case of embalming a success whether you get much or little pay for it.

THE VEINS.

The veins of the body are entirely different in their make-up from an artery. The walls of a vein are thin and flexible, and when empty fall down and are flat, and are reduced very much in size; but when full of blood are usually round and present a bluish appearance. At the mouth of a vein, or where it empties into another vein, it has a valve funnel-shaped, with the point or small end of the valve pointing towards the mouth of the vein. When the blood is following its course the valve is open, as it is pumped by the heart's action towards that organ, and in case the blood should tend to flow backwards these valves would close, thereby preventing the blood from regurgitating. This condition of things exists in all cases except where the two common iliacs unite and form the abdominal vena cava, there being no valves in the trunk veins, except where they empty into the heart.

It is well to remember the venous capillaries, and that their office is to take the impure blood from the tissues as it leaves the arterial capillaries and forming into larger veins, until this impure blood reaches the heart, when it is taken to the lungs

to be purified. These capillaries exist all over the entire body, and not a spot however small but what they exist. They get this name because they are hair-like and are invisible to the naked eye, but are as important in their office as the largest vein in the body.

THE TRUNK VEINS.

The vena cavas, two in number, which are located in the trunk of the body, are the largest veins in the body. The superior or descending vena cava, which drains the blood from the head, neck, shoulders and arms, is contained entirely in the thoracic cavity, and empties into the upper part of the right auricle of the heart. Therefore all the blood from the upper extremities are conveyed through this vessel and its branches to the heart.

The inferior vena cava (or the abdominal, as it is sometimes called,) is the large trunk that drains the blood from both legs and all the organs in the abdominal cavity, passing upwards to the right of the vertebræ or spinal column, turning to the right at the upper part, and empties into the back part of the heart and into the right auricle just below the superior or descending vena cava. To these large trunk veins all other veins of the whole human body are tributary. Hence, you find we have all the venous blood of the body centering at this one point, the heart, and by becoming familiar with this part of the anatomy of the human body, you will be enabled to obtain fine results that would otherwise give you great trouble, in relieving bad discolorations from the features. See treatment for relieving the blood from the body.

VEINS OF THE ARM.

The basilic vein runs up the inner side of the arm to about its middle, where it pierces the deep fascia and continues up into the axillary vein, receiving at variable points the brachial veins (or venæ comites). The basilic vein becomes a deep vein when it enters the axillary, but at the elbow and beyond it is superficial, and is made up by various branches which pass up the inner side of the arm and hand, and drain off the blood from the superficial parts.

The cephalic vein, used formerly for bleeding people in life, has been employed to relieve the blood on the dead by opening on each arm, but as a rule is not successful. The cephalic

vein passes up the outside of the biceps muscle and then between two other muscles near the shoulder and enters the axillary vein near where the basilic enters the same. The basilic vein is sometimes found at the place where the incision is made to raise the brachial artery, but lies just underneath the skin, and in some cases in the fat or just underneath the fat, and near the median nerve. You will seldom find the vein in making this incision, and it should not be disturbed. If you should rupture it, however, ligate it and proceed as if nothing had happened.

The brachial veins, which accompany the brachial artery, continue on each side of the artery, from where it leaves the axillary space, until its division just below the elbow and make-up or connect to form the axillary vein.

VEINS OF THE NECK AND HEAD.

The internal jugular veins, two in number, are found on each side of the windpipe, and to the outerside of the common carotid artery.

The right internal jugular vein is formed precisely the same as the right common carotid artery, except that no arch of the descending vena cava exists. The innominate vein coming off the vena cava extends upwards about an inch and then divides into the subclavian, which passes under the clavicle or collar-bone, thence into the axillary space, forming the axillary vein and another branch which forms the internal jugular and passes up the neck on the outer side of the artery. The external jugular vein arises or is found at the angle of the jaw, crossing the neck transversely, and empties into the subclavian vein at the middle or center of the clavicle or collar-bone. We use the external jugular at this point for relieving the blood from the features. See treatment for relieving blood. The left internal jugular starts from the left innominate vein, and has the same relation to the common carotid artery as the right internal jugular. The left subclavian continues same as the right subclavian vein. The veins of the face are similar to the arteries and take nearly the same direction, being connected by the capillaries.

The internal jugular vein is the largest vein in the body, except the vena cava, and is capable of being distended to a very large size, and when empty may be reduced to one-eighth or one-tenth its normal size.

VEINS OF THE LEG.

The Femoral Vein.—The iliac vein, as it leaves the body and passes under Poupart's ligament, becomes the femoral vein, and follows down the deep part of the thigh on the inside of the femoral artery, and, at from one and one-half to two inches below Poupart's ligament, it passes underneath the artery, and at the place where the incision is made in the artery is usually invisible, unless you dissect below the artery to find it. It passes down close to the femoral artery and drains off the deep part of the leg. This, like all other larger veins, is made by smaller branches that drain off the blood from the surrounding tissues, and these smaller veins are made up by the venous capillaries found in the deep muscles and other surrounding tissues. In the veins, it must be remembered, the blood always goes towards the heart.

The long saphenous vein empties into the femoral vein at about one and one-half inches below Poupart's ligament, and is made up by numerous branches, starting at the great toe and surface of the foot, and branches from the superficial part of the leg below and above the knee. All go to make up this vein, and the valves exist in the mouth of every one of these branches, which you will remember is to prevent the blood from regurgitating or running backwards. To relieve the blood from the leg we open the femoral vein just below where the saphenous empties in. This gives the blood from all the deep and surface veins. See treatment for relieving blood from the legs.

THE ARTERIES.

The arteries, unlike the veins, have no valves in them, except where they originate at the heart. The walls are heavy and the blood can course any direction, but goes but one way, and that way is always from the heart. The walls of an artery are thick and heavy, and when empty resemble a rubber tube drawn across the finger, having rounded edges and sunken center. Every artery in the body has an accompanying vein or veins, but not every vein has its accompanying artery. The office of the artery is to distribute pure blood to all the tissues of the body, to give nourishment to and feed the tissues by means of the arterial capillaries. These arterial capillaries continue into the venous capillaries, which take up the impurities of the tissues and with them the impure blood. An

incision in the skin with the point of the scalpel while you are injecting will demonstrate this fact by the fluid making its appearance at that point. In embalming we use either the femoral, the brachial or common carotid artery. There are times when the femoral artery should not be used. These cases, however, will be mentioned in their proper place, as also those of the common carotid and brachial arteries. The author's aim is to simplify this great art and make everything so plain and clear that with a correct application to the contents of this volume the great difficulties heretofore existing may be comparatively easily overcome.

COMMON CAROTID ARTERY.

This artery is located on each side of the windpipe, and is known as the right and left common carotid arteries. They both originate at the arch of the aorta just after it leaves the heart. On the right side there is a short branch ranging from one-half to one inch long called the innominate artery. This branch divides into two other branches, viz: the right common carotid, which passes up the neck, and the other, the subclavian artery, which passes under the clavicle or collar-bone, continuing into the armpit, where it becomes the axillary artery; thence down the arm and to the elbow is the brachial artery. The left common carotid comes directly off the arch, as does also the left subclavian, and its course on the left side is identical to that of the right. As the common carotid (either right or left) passes up the neck it divides, at a point known as Adam's apple, into two other carotid arteries known as the internal and external. The internal supplying the neck and all the inner part of the head, also gives off other branches, viz: the lingual, that supplies the tissue around the throat, windpipe and vocal organs; the external going to and supplying the outer part of the head, and giving off the facial that supplies the face; the temporal to the temple and forehead, and the occipital to the back of the head and a part of the neck.

The common carotid artery is the largest artery in the body that is used in embalming. Is the nearest the heart, and is in direct and immediate connection with the aorta, and when acceptable to the friends, the neck being long enough to cover the incision, is the best artery in the body to inject.

The landmarks for finding this artery are as follows: (See

plates No. 1 and 2.) The sterno-mastoid muscle, the upper attachment of which is at the base of the ear and running down the neck, attaches itself below to the sternum bone or breast bone where the two clavicles or collar bones unite. The inner side of this sterno-mastoid muscle is the outer boundary, and the windpipe the inner boundary. On the wind pipe at the place of operation is a fleshy tissue known as the thyroid gland, and is found on both sides, being united together in the center on top by an isthmus. The artery lies between and underneath the thyroid gland and sterno-mastoid muscle, the muscle and gland being intimately connected by means of a very thin transparent tissue, and by their appearance would seem to both be but one muscle or one gland. You should begin the operation about one-half to one inch above the sternum bone, cutting upwards, making the incision from one and one-half to two and a half inches long. You will cut first through the integument or skin; directly underneath is a thin muscular layer known as the platisma muscle, but you would scarcely know of its existence in making the operation. Next you come to the muscle and gland, (this operation is unlike the one for the femoral or brachial arteries, there being no fat to contend with,) which should not be cut to separate them, but use the handle of the scalpel or aneurism needle and separate them by pressing the muscle outside and the gland inside. When you have gotten down to their lower edge you will find running bias across another small thin muscle called the omo-hyoid; this you will cut off, as it is of no value. Over and under this muscle is a thin, tough covering, called fascia, that binds or holds the muscles and artery and vein in position. To open this fascia, with the forceps raise it up at the center of the incision, and with the point of the scalpel split it lengthwise of the incision. Underneath the fascia you will clearly see the internal jugular vein, which lies to the outside of the artery. You can easily determine it on account of its size and also the gurgling of the blood when you press on the tissues surrounding it. On the inner side and under the border of the thyroid gland you will find the common carotid artery, which, with the vein, is covered by a common sheath. This must be removed before the artery can be raised. This is best done with the aneurism needle by pressing it through the sheath at the lower end of the incision, using great care not to rupture the vein. This done, then start the point of the

aneurism needle between the vein and artery, but towards the windpipe, passing it under and around the artery; raise it to the surface, passing the handle of the scalpel under it. Now with the aneurism needle scrape off or separate the sheath covering the artery. This done, take the forceps and pinch up the artery so as to make the edge of the artery stand up, and with the scalpel make a transverse or cross incision in the artery, cutting through one-fourth or one-third of the artery. Place the tube in the artery, pointing downwards; place the thread in the aneurism needle and run it under double; tie the tube into the artery behind the shoulder of the tube, first one tight knot and one single bow knot; also one loose knot at the other end of the incision, to be in readiness to tie when the fluid makes its appearance. When all is ready attach the pump and proceed to inject slowly, observing the incline, which should never be forgotten. The operator should stand at the head of the subject to be embalmed.

THE BRACHIAL ARTERY AND ITS BRANCHES.

The brachial artery, which is the largest and most important for use in embalming, begins at the arm pit or axillary space, and is the continuation of the axillary artery, and at this point is deeper than at any other point, passes down the arm and along the inside of the biceps muscle until it reaches the elbow, where it divides into two branches, the radial and the ulnar—the radial, which runs down the outside of the forearm to the thumb side of the hand, and is the one used in taking the pulse; the ulnar, which passes down to the inner side of the forearm and to the little finger side of the hand, and assists the radial in supplying the hand. The branches of the brachial artery are comparatively numerous, and give us collateral circulation that supplies the lower part of the arm and hand when injecting upwards. The branches are the muscular, which supply the muscles at various points; the nutrient, which enters at about the middle of the forearm, with a general direction towards the elbow. The superior profunda, or larger deep, comes off the brachial at the upper end of the brachial near the axillary, and passes down the deeper part of the arm and meets at the elbow with a branch coming off the radial artery, called the radial recurrent artery. This is the principal branch that gives us the flow of the fluid at the lower part of the incision when the injection is made. The inferior profunda or small

deep artery, which rises at varying distances below the large deep or superior profunda, passing down the deep part of the arm and near the elbow there joins with the recurrent branch of the ulnar artery, which supplies that part of the arm and also another branch called the anastomotic or connecting. This is also of value for the same purpose.

To raise the brachial artery, first locate the biceps muscle and find the inner and lower border, with the ends of fingers; feel for the little cord—the median nerve; make the incision from one to three inches long, owing to size of the arm, making the lower part of the incision about three-fourths of an inch to one inch above the bend of the elbow (the arm should extend out from the body) cutting first, the integument or skin; second, fascia and fat; third, deep fascia. This will bring you down on top of the median nerve. The artery and two veins will lie a little deeper and towards the body of the biceps muscle. Fourth, with the aneurism needle raise the artery and veins up and separate them, allowing the veins to drop down. Scrape off the sheath from the artery and, fifth, with the forceps pinch up the artery and make a transverse or cross incision about one-fourth the way through the artery and with the scissors make a little slit downwards. This will enable you to put the tube inside the inner lining of the artery. Sixth, tie the tube in the artery with one tight and one bow knot; and one loose tight knot below, until the fluid has made its appearance, when the last knot should be tied up tight For the usual anomalies of the brachial artery, see discription of the brachial artery.

THE FEMORAL ARTERY.

The femoral artery is contained in the thigh, and is the continuation of the iliac artery, which changes its name after it has left the body and entered the thigh. It is in size similar to the common carotid, sometimes as large, but generally a trifle smaller, except in small children, when the common carotid is from four to six times as large as the femoral and from eight to ten times as large as the brachial artery. This is especially the case in children from one day to four or six months old.

The femoral artery continues from Poupart's ligament to near the knee, where it passes under the leg and becomes the popliteal. The landmarks for finding the femoral artery are as follows: Find the point or process of bone on the inner and upper side of the hip bone called the iliac bone, then the

upper and outer point or process on the pubic bone in the center of the body and at the lower end of the abdomen—that bony structure just above the penis on the male. Divide this space in the middle and draw a line with a string to the inner part of the knee—the bony structure that comes together when you stand with your legs together. This string or line will put you directly over the femoral artery. Another landmark that will also serve you as a positive rule for finding the artery: Find the center between the two points just given, and just at the end of the abdomen and in the center of Poupart's ligament with the tips of the two or three first fingers follow the little valley down the thigh to a distance of from three to five inches. If you commence lower down the thigh you are liable to strike a more distinct valley, one running up the inner side and another running up the outer side of the thigh. Either of these latter valleys will mislead you and place you clear off the line for finding the artery. But start at the center of this line and up close to the body, following the natural channel about two inches, and commence to make your incision cutting downwards. You will cut carefully and steadily—first the integument or skin; second the fat, which should be carefully done, and underneath the fat will be found the deep fascia, a thin, tough membranous tissue that binds the muscles together and holds them in position. Underneath this fascia you will see a light-colored line, which is the femoral artery. To split this deep fascia, with the forceps raise it up, and with the scalpel split it full length of the incision and push it aside. A little layer of fat will overlay the artery, which may be scraped off with the handle of the scalpel, and the artery will be in full view. The artery and femoral vein will be found to contain a common sheath, which should be separated. The aneurism needle will serve your purpose best; with the point draw it along lengthwise of the artery and tear it loose from the artery full length of the incision. Then take the point of the aneurism needle and pass it around the artery under this sheath and raise the artery to the surface. To make the incision in the artery, with the forceps pinch it up, forming the edge upwards; then with the scalpel cut it crosswise about one-fourth the way down; then with the scissors make a slit downwards, making the incision in the artery T shape. The necessity for making the cross cut in the artery is to go beyond the three different parts forming the artery, viz: the outer

lining, the middle wall and the inner lining, which if not cut you are liable to slip the tube in between the inner lining and middle wall.

The necessity for making the incision in the artery two and a half to three inches below Poupart's ligament is to get below the deep femoral artery that comes or branches off the femoral artery at one to one and a quarter inches below the ligament, and from behind the artery. This deep femoral artery supplies the deep part of the leg, and continues down and gives off branches that meet other branches coming up from the foot and lower part of the leg, whereby we get collateral circulation, which sends the fluid down the leg and then fills the femoral artery you are injecting so that it will run out at the opening in the artery just below the tube. To tie the tube in the artery, pass the aneurism needle under it with a double thread, and when you have drawn it half way through, cut it so as to give you two threads; tie one around the artery with one tight knot behind the shoulder on the tube, and then with a single bow knot; then with the other thread tie a loose knot around the artery below the tube, having it ready to tighten when you discover the fluid has made its circuit and is coming out below. Then you should tie the thread in two knots and continue the injection, which should be slow and steady. If you desire to make the second injection, place the cap or closed end thimble over the tube after detaching the pump, and allow it to remain so until you have completed the injection. To take out the tube, untie the bow knot, and with both hands loosen the tight knot, and with the two smallest fingers on the right hand pull the tube out and draw the thread tight, making two tight knots; sew up the incision neatly and allow the body to remain on the incline until you are ready to place in the casket or until the fluid has fully penetrated the tissues. Never inject the femoral artery too rapidly; take it slow and leisurely, else you will drive the blood to the head and cause a serious discoloration. It should never be used except in thin, emaciated cases.

DISEASES OF THE LUNGS.

These cases are usually easily managed. There are various kinds of lung diseases. We have the prolonged or lingering and the hasty consumption, pulmonary, lung fever, tuberclosis, etc., etc., and the treatment for all are so similar that it

is hardly necessary to mention any but the general treatment. In each case the lungs are involved, and are more or less broken down or sloughed off. By referring to the chapter on the circulatory system, you will see that in the healthy lung the bronchial arteries carry the venous blood to the lungs and terminate at the air cells, and come in contact with the air that we breathe, which passes through the bronchial or air tubes and is purified and then taken back to the heart for re-distribution to the tissues. When the lung becomes diseased, these air cells with the lung tissue gradually decay and separate, leaving the air cells exposed, except what are protected by a searing or temporary healing over. The fact that this is a very delicate and tender structure and easily gives way with the pressure of the pump when attached to the artery, and breaking through these air cells fills up the cavity surrounding the remaining part of the lung, the continued pressure of the pump causes the fluid to run back through the bronchial (ovair) tubes and comes out of the nostrils or mouth. This will cause an unnecessary waste of the fluid, and yet as long as it causes blood and fluid to flow it is well to let it run until the fluid appears nearly clear. Then the remedy is to push absorbent cotton down both nostrils until you have closed the epiglottis, or little trap door that covers the top of the trachea or windpipe. This will, as a rule, produce the desired effect, and you can continue the injection until you have sufficient fluid in the body for that time. Should this not prove successful, the next and positive remedy is to make an incision in the windpipe about one-half to three-quarters of an inch The incision should be made just above the sternum bone in the front part of the windpipe. Holding the wound open with the forceps or handle of scalpel, push cotton into the windpipe until you have filled it up. This will effectually bring about the desired result. It is not necessary in cases of this character to tap the heart, as there is but little blood in the body, and you can do so, as a rule. If the subject be a male, use the femoral artery, but in a female the brachial artery should be used, the injection being slow and steady, keeping in view the value of the incline. If there should be any inflammation in the abdominal cavity, a pint or more injected will be of value. In some cases, the second injection in the artery may be necessary. Saturated cloths over the face and hands are not required, unless the discolorations should be great and desire a

hasty restoration. The former injection will produce this in from one to four hours.

HEART DISEASE

Is attended with a fullness of all the trunk and lesser veins, especially those of the head, and in many cases the arteries, and contain more or less blood. It is not an uncommon thing to get from an ounce to a half pint of blood from the brachial artery. It is therefore necessary to place the body in an inclined position, which will allow the blood to gravitate from the head to the trunk of the body. This being done, proceed to tap the right ventricle of the heart, a discription of which has been given on the organs of the trunk of the body. But it will not come amiss to give it again.

The internal jugular vein conveys the blood from the inside of the head, the external jugular from the surface of the head and face, the subclavian veins convey that which comes from the arms. All of these empty and combine in such a manner as to form one large branch called the descending vena cava. The blood of the vena cava empties into the right auricle of the heart, and from there passes into the right ventricle. Understanding the natural position of the heart and the parts surrounding it, we are enabled, by properly puncturing, to enter the right ventricle and draw away the blood. The heart lies in a space between the right and left lungs (more to the left than the right) and is surrounded by a sack which is attached to the upper surface of the diaphragm. The direction of the heart is with the apex or point toward the breast, and the base or upper part inclining toward the back. At the same time its base points toward the right shoulder and the apex corresponds to a point two inches below the left nipple and one inch in toward the beast-bone. (See Fig. 3) The operation for puncturing the heart may be described as follows: Take a hollow trocar with a center rod, and start the puncturing at a point not less than an inch to the left side of the tip of the breast-bone. When the trocar has passed into the abdominal cavity, push the rod in to prevent the instrument from puncturing the liver; pass up between the liver and breast-bone until the diaphragm is reached. By puncturing the diaphragm at this point the heart sack is entered. Then direct the trocar toward the right shoulder and push it upward and backward, as though the operator desired to strike a point mid way between the breast-bone and back-bone, a dis-

tance upward from the starting point of about five or six inches. This will find the trocar inside the right ventricle of the heart. After the diaphragm has been reached, there is no need of the center rod, for as a rule when the trocar enters the heart the blood will appear. If it does not flow freely the rod can be pushed in to displace anything that hinders its flow after the heart is entered. The higher the head and shoulders are raised the more free is the flow of the blood.

In heart disease, another treatment may be successfully used. In reaching the heart when the necessary incline cannot be obtained, the right ventricle of the heart may be reached with the trocar by making the incision in the right side of the body and on the lower part by puncturing between the first and second, or between the second and third ribs, counting from below. Pull out the rod until you have passed the point of the instrument between and through the ribs and have entered the cavity, then push the rod in and direct it up under the right lung until you have reached the pericardium or heart's sack; then withdraw the rod enough to bare the point, and you will enter the sack and reach the right ventricle; after which push the rod in to see if you have struck the heart properly, which will be indicated by the appearance of blood on the rod, which must be drawn clear out and a sponge or vessel of some kind used to catch the blood, which should be allowed to flow as long as it will run; the arms should be raised, as also the head to allow gravitation to convey the blood to the heart.

In all cases requiring the above operation, great care should be taken in injecting the arteries, as they too contain more or less blood. Every operator knows that in all of these cases the brachial and not the femoral artery should be used. In almost every case of dropsy of the limbs, a considerable quantity of blood will escape upon opening the artery. When this is the case care must be taken to prevent the blood in the arteries from being driven to the surface of the face. To prevent this, the body must be on a steep incline, and at first only a quantity of fluid injected, sufficient to wash the blood from the brachial artery into the aorta. By waiting a few minutes, the fluid injected will have escaped toward the lower extremities. Then proceed again to inject about a half pint, or a whole pint, so that some of the fluid will pass up the larger branches of the head, but not into the capillaries; wait again a few minutes, allowing the fluid that passes upward to gravitate downward,

carrying with it the blood that may have been in those branches. When that is accomplished, the injection may be continued slowly until the body has received all the fluid that is necessary for that time.

DROWNING OR FLOATERS.

These cases are so varied that to give a treatment for all would require a great deal of space, and the ones easiest and some of the difficult cases will be treated upon. It has been asserted by some that any case, no matter how bad or how much decomposed, could be restored to its original and lifelike appearance. This, in the author's opinion, is utterly impossible, and no preparation, no matter how powerful, or how skillful the operator, can restore decomposed animal tissue to a good healthy condition. We do not say, however, that decomposition cannot be arrested or stayed for the time being. It is well when a professional or expert embalmer of real ability will produce results that to some would seem wonderful in the highest degree; it is at least the duty of every operator or embalmer to tell his friends that he will do his very best in these extreme cases, and can promise them as good, if not better, results than could be attained with ice. If the body should be drowned in cool or cold weather, and in the water two or three days, the best treatment is, if you are present when the body is taken from the water, to have the coat or dress thrown over the face at once and kept there until you have embalmed the body, otherwise the air and light will cause it to turn dark, or even black. The water should be extracted from the lungs and stomach, and if convenient a barrel should be used, on which place the subject with the face downwards, and by holding the feet roll the body back and forth. This will nearly always relieve the water. Place the body on a steep incline and use the common carotid or brachial artery, making two or three injections. If the body is to be kept for several days or to be shipped, keep the face, neck and hands covered with cloths saturated in diluted fluid. The body will gradually improve, and at the end of three days, unless it has been bruised or the skin broken, will present a much better appearance than could be expected. Cases can be cited that were kept splendidly for three and four weeks that were drowned in the fall or early spring, but a body that was bloated out of recognition was never seen restored to its normal size and condition.

If the weather is warm and the body has been dead but a few hours, and is to be shipped, the heart should be tapped, after the water has been taken from the stomach and lungs by turning the body on the side with the face downwards and with your knee pressed first towards the chest. Be careful not to allow the head to get below the level of the body, as this will cause the blood to run to the head and discolor the features. The brachial or common carotid artery should be used, and the body to remain on an incline for at least twelve hours. The second injection may be of considerable value. The face, neck and hands should be covered for a few hours with the fluid by saturating cloths. These are not necessarily difficult cases, as the organs of the body are usually in a healthy condition, and are easily preserved if you have a good and reliable fluid. The most frequent cases are those which have been in the water three or four days, and when the sun has shown on the body and is very much swollen. In such cases first tap the abdomen to allow the gas to escape; open the abdomen at the proper place and relieve the intestines of the gases and inject them, as also the abdominal and thoraeic cavities. Injeet the carotid artery (as the distribution will be quicker than from the brachial), then tap the heart from either the front or side. Introduce the trocar under the skin on the side of the ehest, running it up under the skin towards and up to the neck, and inject the fluid freely. Point the trocar at different angles. This will assist very materially in relieving the gases in the tissues. And while using the common carotid artery, the internal jugular vein should be tapped and allowed to remain open until the fluid makes its appearance. Keep the face and hands elevated, as also the body, and covered with cloths saturated with fluid full strength for the first two or three hours. The injection in the artery should be repeated two or three times, as may also be in the cavities. You cannot promise a restoration. Washing the body with the fluid will assist the matter, but is not an essential feature by any means. If your time is limited in preparing the body, you may lay pans of ice on the ehest or abdomen, to assist in reducing the temperature of the body, but should not be done until after you have injected the body. In these eases it is very important that you should possess a clear, cool head and clear mind, and have the entire charge of the body. It would be well to visit the subject once or twice a day until you have the decomposition under con-

trol. Every case you have will give you additional knowledge and greater confidence in your skill. You will not know the value of a failure until you have had one or more. It may cause you to feel very uncomfortable and cause you to worry, fret and stew, but in your calmer moments you will begin to consider the cause of failure or even a partial one. Whose fault was it—the instructor, the fluid used, or the operator himself? If you are a progressive man in your business you will not stop studying until you have found the cause of your trouble, and in future you will be able to meet such a case and treat it with such signal success as will make you proud of your profession. Do not, by any means, at sight of a failure give up the first branch of the business and go back to ice, or the old method. Stand up with the determination that you will be at the head of your profession, and what others have done so you can do. Thus, suppose a physican or a lawyer should lose a case, would it be right for either to say, "I will never take another case because I failed in this one?" No! a thousand times no!

CHILD-BIRTH OR PUERPERAL FEVER.

It is considered by many that these are cases of a very difficult nature, and that very few can be treated with perfect success. This, however, is as absurd as many other statements made by enemies to embalming. If the treatment is properly understood, and you are familiar with diagnosis of the case, being permitted to use your knowledge, you need not have any fear of having a successful case. If the body has been laid out, you should at once place it on an incline as steep as you can do so; raise the hands above the head, and rub from the fingers and wrist down to the shoulder, also the forehead, face and neck downwards. Tap the heart and allow it to run as freely and as long as it will. Elevate the arms again, andalso rub the face and neck. A little fluid may be injected down the nostrils into the stomach to arrest or prevent purging. This done, raise the brachial artery, and very slowly inject two or three ounces of fluid, after which stop for five or six minutes to allow the fluid to gravitate and carry with it such blood as may be found in the arteries and branches. Then inject very slowly until you find the pump or syringe seems to work hard, when you should cease pumping. The tube in the artery may be covered with the closed end thimble or cap, and you can inject the cavities, always using the rod in the trocar to

prevent destroying the viscera. In many cases the one injection is sufficient, provided you have got one and one half to two quarts in the artery and a quart in the cavity. If the subject is a large one and is to be kept for several days, the weather warm or hot, the second injection should be made in from twelve to twenty-four hours. Should the brachial artery prove too small, do not use the femoral, but take up the common carotid, making the incision as low down as possible. Should you fail to relieve the gases in the abdomen, you should raise the intestines and puncture them as in enteritis, peritonitis, etc. You have the advantage of a healthy condition of all the organs in these cases, and your greatest trouble is the fever in the abdomen and the blood in the upper part of the body. One thing, not mentioned, should always be attended to, and that is the vagina should be carefully filled with absorbent cotton if it can be had. If not, use the ordinary, saturated with the fluid, and a good thick diaper put on, which should be wet with the fluid. If this treatment is followed, there need be no occasion to fail.

In cases of death by abortion, the same treatment as above will be found correct. But there are so many cases of this character that the correct diagnosis is not given, and you are treating a case of inflammation of the bowels, and called peritonitis or enteritis. If the patient should die, the child not born, you have a similar treatment as in child-bed fever, excepting that you have more blood in the veins, and the whole body, and the womb should be probed with the trocar and a liberal amount of fluid injected into the womb. This you can do from the lower end of the abdomen or a little to one side. The value of the incline should never be lost sight of, as, also, when relieving the blood from the heart. Never use the femoral artery in these cases.

DROPSY

Is not, properly speaking, a disease, but the result of diseases of the liver, heart, kidneys and the lungs. It is the accumulation of water due to an unhealthy condition of some organ or organs and imperfect working or action of the secretions. It is not uncommon for dropsy to disappear entirely. There are so many cases of dropsy and all so similar that it is thought best to classify them, and begin with

DROPSY OF THE HEART,

Meaning dropsy of the pericardium or heart's sack, which becomes filled with water and can be relieved from one or more places. Introduce the trocar from one to two inches below the sternum bone, passing it up over the liver and under the sternum bone until you have reached the diaphragm, and the instant you enter this you have punctured the sack surrounding the heart. Place the body on an incline and allow the water to flow out, having a vessel at hand to receive it. Another way is to pass the trocar up between the sixth and seventh ribs on the lower right side of the body, directing it up under the lungs. This will enable you to strike the lower right side of the heart, which will give the desired result. The fluid can be injected into the same incision.

DROPSY OF THE THORACIC CAVITY.

The mode for relieving is the same as for the heart, but should be done from both sides, running the trocar in up under each lung, remembering that each lung has a separate cavity of its own.

DROPSY OF THE ABDOMEN.

Introduce the trocar at the lower and under side of the body between the lower ribs and hip bone, extending it upwards to, or near the center. As the water flows out pull the trocar out. In case it should become stopped up, push the rod clear in to dislodge any mucous or other matter that might close up the opening of the trocar. It is sometimes necessary to make this operation on both sides, and to make it the second or third time. This, of course, depends upon the re-forming of the water. It is well to make the test if you have any fears. If you are injecting the arteries, you need not inject the cavities for twenty-four hours, if at all. These cases are not usually hard to preserve if you get the water away.

DROPSY OF THE LEGS

Requires more labor than that of the cavities alone. The best treatment is to bandage, beginning at the feet or toes and bandage to the ankle, then at the hip and bandage to the knee, making an incision just above the knee on both sides, outer and inner, through the skin with the scalpel; thence from the knee down to the ankle, making the incision on either side of

the ankle at the end of the muscle. This treatment will prevent the formation of sacks of water after embalming, which will occur from six to twelve hours. Leave the bandages on.

DROPSY OF THE ARMS

May be treated the same as dropsy of the legs.

SLIPPING OF THE EPIDERMIS, OR SKIN.

This will occur usually from twenty-four to forty-eight hours after embalming, and in some cases all over the body, provided the water is not taken away. This can be prevented to some extent, by washing the body with the fluid and using afterwards on the face, hands and wrists a thin solution of white shellac made by dissolving white or bleached shellac in alcohol. Apply with a soft brush or sponge. It is best to dress a corpse having dropsy within twenty-four hours after embalming it.

If the dropsy exists in the legs and feet, as is often the case, the water may be relieved by making an incision with the point of the scalpel just below the ankle joint on both sides, beginning at the toes. Bandage the foot tightly and bandage up to the ankle. An incision of the same kind, made above the first ones at the ends of the muscles, and bandages from the knee down, will relieve that part. Make the same incision just above the knee, and bandage from the upper part of the thigh down to the knee, which will also relieve the thigh. The bandages may be left on if you like. This mode of treatment will prevent the formation of sacks of water on the under side of the leg, which are easily burst, causing a constant running or dripping of the water, thereby wetting the carpets, unless protected by an oilcloth placed on the embalming board and fastened up at the corners, forming a box. Dropsical cases are not necessarily hard to preserve if this treatment is followed. The brachial artery should be used, or the common carotid, as you like. If the subject is not a large one or contains much blood the femoral might be employed, if not "interfered with" by the bandages. From one to three quarts of Anti-Septic should be used, according to size and condition of the body; always, of course, observing the benefit of the incline of the body—at least that of the trunk.

ACCIDENTS.

These cases are so numerous that to give the treatment for the prineipal ones will enable the reader to handle all others that he may have to embalm.

THE HEAD SEVERED.

The eommon earotids and the vertebral arteries should be ligated and the braehial artery used. While injeeting, notiee any vessels that may be leaking and tie them. The head may be injeeted by one of the arteries if not too badly mangled. It should then be plaeed in position and sewed on. The applieation of plaster of Paris will aid materially in preventing the leakage of the fluid while injeeting.

THE ARMS SEVERED.

If below or above the elbow, raise the brachial or common earotid artery and inject slowly to obtain the location of the severed vessels; then with the forceps take them up and ligate them. Should you fail to get them all, with a strong eord or string ligate the arm just above the plaee of injury. If the other part of the arm and hand remains intaet, you ean raise the radial artery on the thumb part of the hand and inject to find the others, and ligate as before. Sew the severed parts together, whieh will give a seemingly perfect arm.

THE LEG OR FOOT CRUSHED.

If the leg below the knee, or even the foot, be erushed, so as to allow a free flow of blood, you ean use the femoral artery on either side; and when you have injeeted suffieient fluid to cause a leakage at the wound or injury, you ean take the forceps and follow up the flow and readily obtain the location of the artery or arteries from whieh the fluid flows, and ligate them. If the skin, or a part, should be left hanging, fold it over the opposite edge and sew it up elosely. A sock or stocking may be used to make out the missing foot and leg after being filled with cotton. If above the knee and not near the trunk of the body, the femoral artery may be used. If close to the body, the braehial, common carotid or femoral artery on the other side may be employed. By injeeting the artery you will be able to trace the flow of the fluid, and thus find the location of arteries severed by the aecident, and proceed as in the leg or ankle. If in ease of both legs, the treatment should be the same as if but one was injured.

THE BODY SEVERED.

There is not much chance to get at the vessels in these cases, but usually the carotid can be reached, and by ligating the branches that have fed the organs in the cavities can be ligated also, and you may be able to inject both parts of the body. If the trial fails, you can raise the femoral and inject, which will give you the leaking arteries, which you can ligate; and then go to the upper part of the body, and by injecting either the brachial or common carotid it will aid you in determining where the trunk artery, as also the other branches, are injured, so you can ligate them, and continue the embalming. After both parts have been injected, place the two together, and with a large needle and strong thread or string sew the skin together, filling the cavity with cotton, which may be saturated with the fluid, through a small opening in the upper part of the trunk, and the opening be closed up afterwards. These seeming impossibilities may very often be made into very respectable looking bodies if you will but put a little skill, ingenuity and energy to work. In case the arm be severed from the body at the shoulder, if you can find the artery belonging to the arm, which would be the axillary, and you can attach the arterial tube, the arm can be injected from that, and if you can see the leaking branches you can ligate them. You may be able to find the subclavian, and thereby inject the body. If not, take up the brachial or common carotid, and your injection will soon show you the location where they should be ligated; after which place the arm back in position and sew on to the body. Should a hand be missing, use a glove and fill the fingers and thumb with cotton and attach to the wrist. This may seem a tedious task, and the amount of money you may get for it will not seem to remunerate you, but you will be getting valuable experience that will pay you some day in a single case more than all your labor and time has cost you. Nothing succeeds like success.

SUICIDES

Are of various kinds, and in giving their treatments it will be necessary to treat on such as are likely to demand special treatment, requiring cadaveric surgery as well as the ordinary modes of embalming. If by

PISTOL OR GUN SHOT IN THE HEAD,

The wound should be washed out with water—preferably warm water. If the ball or shot has gone clear through the head, it may not be necessary to turn the head over. After the wound has been washed out, the cavity should be filled with solution of plaster of Paris. A little salt should be dissolved in the water before mixing, which will cause the plaster to harden quicker. The outer part should be made smooth, and colored to match the skin. The body can then be injected, but should be placed on an incline before the injection is made. Should the blood be settled under the skin aronnd the head and neck, warm cloths may be applied, and by rubbing gently downward the discolorations may be removed without using external applications of the fluid. Should the body be cold and chilled when you are called, the injection of warm fluid will aid the distribution through the body, and fluid may also be used warm externally to hasten the restoration of the natural color.

SHOOTING THROUGH THE HEART

Is often the case in suicides. If the wound should be in the left side of the heart, it may very materially interfere with the distribution of the fluid, as an important leakage may take place unless the abundance of blood would fill the cavity and prevent the fluid from wasting. In this case the brachial or common carotid should be used first and then the opposite femoral. If, however, the femoral should appear to be full of fluid, it is not advisable to open it. The incline should also be used in this case, and remain so for at least twelve hours.

CUTTING THE THROAT.

In this case, usually, the internal jugular and common carotid are severed, and of course the subject has bled freely. You can take up the artery and tie the upper part, and attach the arterial tube and inject. If the artery should be severed on the other side, it should be ligated, as also the internal jugular veins on both sides; otherwise there will be a leakage after the injection, which will occur by the fluid making its way through the capillaries. The incision should be sewed up from each end to near the middle, and a solution of plaster of Paris used to prevent leakage from the smaller branches. The incision should then be sewed up. This is not a difficult task

if you only understand the anatomy of the parts. The brain will receive its supply of fluid through the vertebral artery. It is therefore unnecessary to inject upward in the carotid.

BY POISONING—OPIATES.

If an habitual user of morphine or opium, and the cause of death is by an over dose, the body should be injected at least twice, allowing at least twelve or twenty-four hours to elapse between each injection. If the subject has been a user of ether, in addition to the opiate, the injection should be made every day until burial; otherwise the body may turn a brown color. The writer is familiar with three cases of this kind, and would suggest that care be taken to prevent this unpleasant condition of things. This peculiar character of cases will be treated under another heading.

BY ARSENIC, STRYCHNINE, ETC.

These are very violent deaths, and in some cases the convulsions are so great as to burst some of the blood vessels, and also to cause a swelling or unusual fullness of the features. Sometimes the abdomen becomes much swollen, and the intestines, too, are filled with gases, which should be removed by the trocar from the abdomen and an incision in the same to relieve the intestines. For this treatment see "Peritonitis," etc. The stomach is usually empty from purging. If not, empty it of its contents by turning the head to one side, with the face downwards, as also the body on the side, and with the knee press on the stomach; after this replace the body on an incline and inject the stomach through the mouth or nose. Tap the heart if it should be a large person or contain much blood, and inject the brachial or common carotid artery. If the weather is warm, the second injection would be advisable. Cloths may be kept over the face, neck and hands, saturated with the diluted fluid, and, if over the abdomen, it may be used full strength.

PARIS GREEN, PHOSPHORUS, ETC.

The treatment in these cases would be the same as given for arsenic, etc., although your own good judgment must be used, as a slight or material difference might occur under different circumstances. A person in good health will not be as hard to treat as one having been sick a long time or with a complica-

tion of diseases. A cool, steady nerve will be of great value to you in all difficult cases.

CANCERS.

In cancer of the neck, breast and face, or any part where it can be reached, wash the diseased parts with the fluid, to which may be added some warm water. Wipe it out and cover the place with absorbent cotton saturated with the fluid and bandage to place, or use long strips of adhesive plaster to hold in position. Another excellent way is: While the sore is a little damp, sprinkle dry plaster of Paris over it, which will harden and make a foundation. You can then mix up a thin solution of the plaster and water and pour in until you have covered every diseased part. This will effectually close up all the smaller arteries eaten off by the disease, and your injection may go on with every assurance of a thorough distribution. Mr. J. G. Keyler, of Bloomfield, N. J., mentions a case where he built up a nose, and another of an eye and part of a cheek bone, giving each their proper color and presenting for burial a fine appearing and a well preserved corpse. If a thin, emaciated body, the femoral artery may be used. If not, the brachial or the common carotid.

CANCER OF THE STOMACH.

Empty the stomach of whatever matter it may contain, but do not allow the head to get below the level of the body. Return to an inclined position and inject through the nostrils into the stomach a pint of fluid. This will allay any formation of gas and begin to arrest decomposition at the seat of disease. The same artery can be used as in cancer of the face or neck. Always observe the value of the incline. A second injection into the stomach may be advisable, after one or two days. It may be necessary to inject the artery the second time. This will depend of course upon the size and condition of the body, and the kind of weather. You must, of course, exercise good judgment in the matter.

CANCER OF THE WOMB.

These are often very difficult cases to handle, on account of not being able to reach it readily. Yet you need have no fear of failure if you will observe the treatment and execute it properly. First apply absorbent cotton saturated with the

fluid, and press it into the vagina, packing it close; then put on a thick diaper and saturate it with fluid. The abdominal cavity may be injected in this case in addition to the artery. If the abdomen should be discolored and contains gases, after removing the gases, cloths may be laid on to assist restoration.

CANCER OF THE THROAT.

The case of General Grant, who died on the 23d of July, and was kept until the 8th of August, was one that has exercised the mind of the embalming fraternity the country over, and of course nearly everybody had his idea of what he would do in the case, being familiar with the treatment in the case. The body was first injected in the brachial artery, in addition to abdominal injection, about four quarts; later, the femoral artery was raised and two quarts more were put in. This was done by Mr. E. Holmes, of Saratoga, N. Y. The following day, Professor Sullivan took the case off his hands and injected another kind of fluid, which combined two different kinds of anti-septic chemicals that did not harmonize. This of course was not a wise procedure, but the case was one of so much importance, and the reputation of a fluid at stake, and there were claims made that were either to immortalize or ruin it.

Undoubtedly the whole body, except the face, was well and perfectly preserved, as I am very credibly informed, and yet the very part that was so important was not. Had Professor Sullivan understood, or stopped to consider the anatomy of the diseased organs of his subject, he would have changed his treatment. It will be well to consider that the trachea (windpipe) and æsophagus (throat or passage to the stomach), as well as the glands of that locality, were all affected, and the arteries branching from the internal carotid, the principal of which is the lingual, which gives off branches that penetrate the surrounding tissues and unite with those given off the facial and other branches given off the external carotid artery. The character of the disease was such as to destroy these various branches, hence a perfect distribution was not effected. Had this orifice surrounding the diseased parts been packed with absorbent cotton and kept constantly saturated with the fluid by means of a small siphon suspended from a bottle and passing through the nasal passage or attached to the nasal tube, the surrounding tissues would have been saturated, and with the use of hydrostatic pressure (or siphon) allowed the fluid to

gradually penetrate the whole body; and I believe perfect results would have been attained. It is lamentable, indeed, while so many successful cases of embalming are being done all over the country, and much worse cases than the one of the lamented hero, to think, not even Lincoln, Garfield or Grant was to be a standard of excellence of which we might point out to the skeptical and say such a case was one of grand success. But such is not our good fortune.

PARALYSIS

Is caused by a pressure upon the nerves at the spinal cord or at the base of the brain. Usually one side only is affected. The effect is to paralyze the muscles, causing a lack of action and less supply of blood. The arteries gradually become diminished in size. The arteries on the diseased side should not be used in injecting, but take up one on the other side and inject gradually, having the body on the incline. It is sometimes necessary, in consequence of the diminished state of the blood in the arteries, to make the second and often the third injection, allowing from one to six hours between. There will be occasion to relieve the blood of the body, also to make the injection in the artery and perhaps of the abdominal and thoracic cavities.

APOPLEXY.

Bodies of persons dying from apoplexy will be found in a similar condition to those dying from heart disease. The cause, however, is different. Death by apoplexy is caused by a rupture of one or more blood vessels, usually in the brain, allowing the blood to escape either in the substance of it or within the membranes covering it. Sometimes we have a case where the vessels near the heart burst and cause death. The walls of the vessels, both arterial and venous, have undergone a change known as fatty degeneration, or there may be a calcareous or limy deposit in the walls. Either condition renders the artery easily torn or ruptured. In this case the brachial or the common carotid artery should be used, and not the femoral. The heart should be punctured in the same manner as in treatment for heart disease, not forgetting the value of the incline. The arteries will generally be found very tender and brittle, and you should handle very carefully, injecting very slowly and steadily, using gentle pressure. The second injection may be found of value.

SUN STROKES.

These are rare, and always leave the head and face in a very bad condition. Treatment:—Place the body on a steep incline, say two feet, if possible to obtain it, and allow the body to remain in this condition for an hour or more, if possible, before injecting an artery, but proceed to puncture the heart, as in case of heart disease, etc. Raise the hands and rub the blood towards the shoulder. If the face is rigid, apply warm cloths wrung out in as hot water as the hands will bear, and press downwards. This may be repeated several times. The common carotid or the brachial artery may be used and one quart of fluid injected slowly, still keeping the body on the incline, and in a few minutes inject more, until you have gotten all that will go easily into the artery. A second injection, twelve or twenty-four hours after, may be very advantageous. The body should be looked after often and any changes noted that may occur. The face, neck and hands should be kept covered with cloths saturated with the solution. This will, in addition to the arterial injection, assist the restoration of the features.

STROKES BY LIGHTNING.

These cases are rare and much less frequent than sunstrokes. Usually the head is stricken first and sometimes the stroke follows the vertebræ or back bone, or, maybe, down one side of the body, or, again, down the arm. When the shock is sufficient to produce death the mark is fixed indelibly. The treatment is like that for heart disease and apoplexy. The incline should be observed, and the face, the neck and the hands should be kept covered with saturated cloths. The affected parts, also, should remain constantly covered. The incline is very important. The carotid or the brachial artery may be used, but not the femoral. In these cases a second injection may be requisite. This can be done at any time within twenty-four hours.

GANGRENE AND BLOOD POISONING.

These cases are generally the result of accidents and injuries, causing numerous sores, or they may be caused by septicæmia —putrid infection from the virus in a dead body. If a wound or an old sore exists, saturate absorbent cotton with the fluid

and bandage with a muslin bandage, using care in handling. You should wash your hands in the fluid, and if an abrasion exists anywhere on your hands, bandage it and wet the bandage with fluid, and then go ahead. These cases are considered by some as very difficult to preserve, as the nature of the disease promotes decay and putridity soon after death, and in some cases decomposition sets in before death. It may be advisable to tap the heart when the blood does not incline to run freely.

The arterial injection will cause a flow, as the fluid reaches the venous trunks through the capillaries. If dropsy should exist, treat the body as in dropsy, in addition to that causing death. You may find in these complicated cases the artery, especially the brachial, to contain blood. If so, let it run out until you think the vessels near the head have been emptied, and then attach the pump and inject slowly. In case where dropsy is present you will get a constant flow by letting the arm hang down in an easy and natural position. If the body is thin, it may not need a second injection. But the value of the inclined position is always to be observed, especially while injecting. It is seldom neccessary to treat the intestines any more than you will need by arterial injection. If the body be rigid and cold, the fluid may be warmed before injecting the arteries, by placing the bottles in warm water in a bucket, removing the corks, or stoppers. The warm fluid will penetrate and open up the smaller vessels, effecting a much better distribution to the tissues.

PERITONITIS.

The cause of death in these cases is due to inflammation of the peritoneum, a covering over the intestines and all the organs in the abdominal cavity. This peritoneum is very vascular and contains a great many arteries and veins. The intense fever causes these little vessels to become very tender, so that they are liable to give way under great pressure. The intestines will be found to contain gas, which will cause purging, both from the rectum and the mouth or the nostrils. If by the use of the trocar you cannot relieve the gases, make an incision lengthwise of the body, about two or three inches below the umbilicus, or navel, making the incision from one and one-half to three inches long, owing to the amount of fatty tissue present. Next raise the intestine out on to the belly. Have your largest arterial tube ready with the rubber

tube attached to the end, or, better, have the closed end thimble over the arterial tube. Make an incision in the intestine and tie the arterial tube in tightly. Then place the rubber hose on and allow it to extend into the bottle containing fluid. Allow the gas to pass through the fluid, which will effectually deodorize the gas and prevent any smell from escaping into the room. The same fluid may then be injected into the intestine, the latter tied up and replaced in the abdomen, and the incision sewed up. If the body is full of blood, the heart may be tapped and the brachial or the common carotid artery used. Inject the abdominal cavity also, and with the incline of the body observed, for twelve or twenty-four hours, you will be able to show a perfect corpse at the time of burial. The use of eye caps will be found of great value. In thin and emaciated cases, and also if the body is to be kept for any length of time, a nice full eye is a good feature in a corpse. If you deem it necessary, make the second injection in the artery. It is also advisable, in extreme cases, to inject the cavity the second time if you apprehend any particular trouble with gases.

ENTERITIS.

There is a similarity in treatment of these cases. Usually the abdomen is swollen and gases are found in the abdomen, and nearly always in the intestines. These will cause purging both from the mouth and the nose, and sometimes through the rectum; especially is it so in the last if the body has had diarrhœa, or liquescent discharges The gases should be relieved from the cavity, and in case the swelling does not disappear, the intestines should be treated as in Peritonitis. The stomach should have attention, and in case of purging should be emptied of its contents, being careful not to allow the head to get below the level of the body and thus cause a flow of blood to the face. You should then inject the stomach with a little fluid through the nasal passage or the mouth, if it should be open. The brachial or the common carotid artery should be used. If the body be a large one, the weather very warm, and the tendency be to decompose, or if decomposition has set in, the second injection, both in the artery and cavity, may be advisable. A visit to the subject in twelve or twenty-four hours will determine the matter.

BODIES TURNING BROWN.

Such cases are exceedingly rare, and you may not have one in your entire practice, and yet they may come to you at any time. Physicians say that, on an average, one in fifty years is as often as they occur in their practice. The cause is a peculiar condition of the blood, the watery portion passing away in the discharges from the bowels, known as liquescent discharges, which are of a watery nature; this condition having existed for one, two, three or even six months. This condition is caused by the patient having been given opiates, viz: Morphine, ether, chloroform, etc, by hypodermic injections, or even given in doses administered direct to the stomach—the remedy to allay pain and check the discharge.

The author has had two cases under his personal knowledge, and is familiar with another one treated by Messrs. Kregelo & Whitsett, of Indianapolis, Ind. You should be familiar with the diagnosis of the case, which is liable to be in those of consumption or pulmonary troubles, and in neuralgia, and is sometimes the result of rheumatic fevers, etc. There may be other causes that the author is not familiar with, but he will give the best treatment known at the present time, which is simply injecting the brachial or the common carotid artery, and continuing the injection every day until the body is to be buried or placed in the vault. The face, neck and hands should remain covered with a weak solution of the fluid. This will keep up the supply of liquid in the body, while the process of evaporation is going on, which is necessarily very great on account of the character of the disease. The best way to treat these cases is to attach the pump or syringe to the artery and elevate the bottle six or twelve inches above the body, allowing the fluid to run in as fast as the body requires it. This method will keep the tissues supplied while the process of evaporation continues, and the body will retain its natural appearance. No change of color will be visible until the skin begins to dry, when the peculiar condition of the blood will show itself, and the skin will turn to a dark brown color. No sign of decomposition will appear, as the tissues will never decay, but will, in the course of time, dry up and mummify. Should any new features come to light in the future on the treatment of these cases, it will be cheerfully furnished by the publishers of this work to all their patrons, free of charge. It is very probable that in a few years another edition will be

issued that will contain all that is herein given, and as much more as can be obtained.

SIGNS OF DEATH.

There are numerous signs of death, and to enter into the details of them all would be to burden the reader's mind with much that would be of little value. What is necessary for us, as embalmers, to understand, is that life is extinct, that respiration has ceased, and that the body ceases to live. One test that no one will deny, is that of the cornea of the eye (or eyeball), which has a film covering it, and is soft and seems to give down or decrease in size. This will show itself in from one-half hour to six hours after death. Another indication is to burn a blister on the arm with a lighted match or a candle, and if the blister, when burst, is dry, it is evident that life is extinct. If the blister contains water, there is still evidence of life remaining. And yet, this would hardly prove correct in case there was œdema (dropsy.) Another is to test the pulsation at the wrist (the radial artery.) Incline the arm inward, bending the elbow a little. Also observe the pulsation in the brachial artery, using very gentle pressure, as the pressure of the hand or the fingers may prevent the flow of blood in the artery. You may also take the pulsation in your own hand or fingers for that of the body. Another is to turn the body on the left side, placing the hand on the breast-bone just below the heart. The ear may also be placed to the left breast. If there is any doubt in your own mind in regard to the matter, when you have raised the artery, and after the sheath has been carefully stripped off, replace it in its former position, observing particularly whether there is any flow of blood. This is indicated by a gradual pulsation. If there is no discernible flow of the blood, open the artery by a small incision and note the character of the flow of blood. If it comes at regular spurts and has every appearance of live arterial blood, the artery should be ligated above and below the incision and results awaited. The appearance of warm blood is not positive proof of life. There are many cases where this occurs, and yet the body is positively dead beyond all doubt. This condition of things is liable, in cases of heart disease, apoplexy, paralysis and sudden deaths by other causes. Rigidity of the arms, legs, and neck are good indications. Many bodies after

embalmment will have the appearance of life, flushed cheeks, fullness of the face, etc.

SEPTICÆMIA.

PUTRID DECOMPOSITION OF THE BLOOD, BLOOD POISONING, ANATOMICAL CHARACTERISTICS.

The blood is of a dark color and does not turn red when exposed to the air, but looses its coagulability partially or wholly. It putrefies rapidly, and, in many cases, has an acid reaction.

CAUSES.

In most cases blood poisoning comes from gangrene, or is occasioned by local processes of decomposition, or it may arise from the decomposition of substances that ought to have been excreted from the bowels, as in acute gastric (stomach) or intestinal catarrhs. Thin watery exudations (oozing through pores) may be thrown off from decomposed tissue and inhaled into the lungs, provided the system be in a condition to receive them. A sponge saturated with a diluted solution of the antiseptic fluid and worn over the nose will be found beneficial as a protection. Any cut or bruise on the finger or the hand will receive the poison. You may stick the hand, accidentally, with a needle, or cut it with a scalpel, or, if in post mortems, you may receive a cut from the sternum bone or a rib, any of which accidents would inoculate the system, if not properly guarded against. An old sore on the hand may be the means of blood poisoning, provided it comes in contact with the decomposed parts of the dead body.

SYMPTOMS.

The septic condition sets in with or without the usual indications which foretell the approach of disease. These symptoms consist in weariness and heaviness of the body; in dull headache, accompanied by a sense of dreariness, dullness and apathetic (unnatural or accidental suspension of the moral feelings) indifference; in restless and unrefreshing sleep; in dull, wandering pains in the limbs; in pressure at the region of the stomach and in the loins; in loss of appetite with a sense of repletion; and with an insipid, bitter, or foul taste; in frequent chills with fugitive heat and occasional outbreaks of sweat; in the secretion of smelling urine, and in the dis-

charges from the lower part of the bowels having a foul odor.

These symptoms having continued for a longer or a shorter period, and sometimes without any preliminary symptoms, a violent chill sets in, followed by a moderate or an intense fever heat. This heat has the peculiarity of imparting to the hand a stinging, biting sensation. Generally the septic symptoms, only, make their appearance after the patient has become debilitated to such an extent that he faints away when the least attempt is made to raise them or to change the position. The first sign of septic decomposition is fetor of the mouth. The breath and the bodily exhalations and spread of putrid odor increase, so that when the patient raises the bed clothing by his motion, a sickening stench affects the nostrils. The stools and the urine have also a cadaveric smell. The dissolution of the blood by readily-bleeding gums, in consequence of which the mouth, the tongue, the teeth and the lips acquire a black-brown appearance. There is frequent nose bleed, vomiting of blood, bloody and foul-smelling, diarrhœic stools, hemorrhages from the vagina or the uterus. Bed sores break out and generally become gangrenous. If the disease reaches the highest degree of intensity, a continued sleep sets in with trembling of extremities, twitching of the muscles, grasping at flocks, involuntary evacuations, cold perspirations and fainting fits. Then the patient dies from exhaustion.

HOMŒOPATHIC TREATMENT.

When treating thin watery abscesses or watery running wounds, or any other sores of a gangrenous character, we must always be prepared for the supervention of a remarkable case of septic poison. In many cases septicæmia (blood poison) can be prevented by diligent washing of the abscesses, ulcers, wounds or gangrenous places with chlorine water, made by diluting a solution of chloride of zinc, or by water from chloride of lime, or by a solution of creosote. Diluted anti-septic fluid is good for that purpose.

The room should be well ventilated and disinfected by spraying with the diluted anti-septic, and saturating towels or cloths, suspending them in the room. Also, expose in an open vessel in the room. Observe, meanwhile, the most scrupulous cleanliness and care of the patient.

As soon as chills and shivering sets in, we at once administer quinine (1) or chinin arsenicas (2) as a reliable treatment in

pyæmia (blood poisoning). In great prostration, with fetor of the mouth, fetid breath and sweat, we give arsenicas (3) every hour. Even if all reasonable ground for hope had disappeared, arsenicas may still prove an efficient remedy if the skin is cool, the features are collapsed, patient is prostrated in a sleepy condition, muttering in delirium, grasping at flocks, with involuntary, bloody and cadavcrously smelling stools, and even gangrenous decubitus, and lying on the side or the back in a horizontal position. We recommend carbo. veg. (6) in solution—a dose every hour or two will prove serviceable. If the patient has reach the last stages, as given in the symptoms, we give china (1) or chinin arsenicas, or phosph. (3), every hour or every two hours. If the degree of stupor prevails, the skin being cool with clammy perspiration and collapsed features, small pulse, etc., give camphor (1) in hourly doses. With violent nose bleed, vomiting, hemorrhages from the vagina or the uterus, ergotine every two hours will be a reliable treatment. In fever, bathe the skin with dilute vinegar.

ALLOPATHIC TREATMENT.

We cannot repeat too frequently, nor too emphatically, the fact that the treatment of pyæmia and septicæmia, when fully developed, is almost invariably successful. Consequently, he who desires to save the most lives must make every exertion and use all available means to prevent their development. Every surgeon will readily admit that, considering the character of the wound, the method of operation, and the surroundings of the patient, the treatment to obtain the best possible results should be: 1. Absolute cleanliness (this demand should be strictly enforced in regard to the wound, the patient's body, bedding, the vessels used and the bed, and everything else including the nurse and instruments used). 2. Absolute purity of the atmosphere. 3. Moderate and equable temperature, containing the proper amount of moisture. 4 Appropriate quantities of digestible food, with suitable drinks, etc., and, 5. Cheerful and pleasant companions, nurses and other attendants and surroundings. Quinine is certainly, in most cases of pyæmia, a valuable agent. In large doses it tends to reduce the temperature of the patient and in smaller doses it is a valuable tonic, as well as antisepic in its properties. Ergotine, given in the early stages, has been found valuable. Strong

cathartics should be avoided or not used at all. Tonics are always useful. The free use of stimulants and nutritious food is valuable. Brandy, whisky and wine may be employed as stimulants.



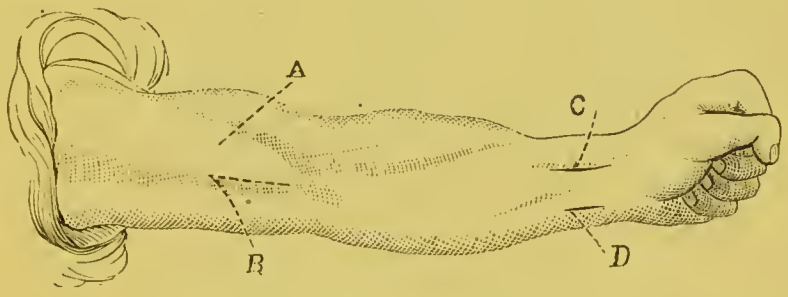
DESCRIPTION OF CUT No. 1.

a a. Clavicle or collar bone.
b. Subclavian vein and artery.
c. Adam's apple and œsophagus.
d. Thyroid gland overlying the windpipe.
e. Sterno mastoid muscle.
----- Point of making the incision for raising the common carotid artery.

TO RAISE THE COMMON CAROTID ARTERY,

Find the course of the sternum mastoid muscle, whose upper attachment is at the back of the ear and running bias down the neck, is attached below at the sternum bone or where the two clavicles (or collar bones) unite at the base of the neck. It is plainly seen by turning the head to one side. This muscle forms the outer boundary and the windpipe the inner boundary, for locating the common carotid artery. By placing the fingers on the neck between the windpipe and this muscle, it will overlie the artery and internal jugular vein. In the living, you can perceive the pulsation. The sternum mastoid muscle and thyroid gland are intimately united by a thin con-

nective tissue, but are entirely separate tissues, and must be separated by the handle of the aneurism needle, or scalpel and not cut. The operation is, 1st. Commence the incision from below, (while standing at the head of the subject,) about three-fourths of an inch from the sternum bone, following the valley diagonally up the neck, and in this valley cutting the skin or integument. 2nd. A thin muscular layer, that is attached to the skin, but would not be seen, if you did not know of its existence. 3rd. Separate the muscle from the gland. 4th. Split the deep fascia, as in the femoral regions. Cut the (omo hyoid) little thin muscle running across, and you will see the internal jugular vein, to the outer side of the artery, separate the sheath covering the two vessels, and with the aneurism needle pointing between the artery and vein, direct it under the artery and towards the windpipe, raising the artery to the surface, using care not to rupture the vein, make the incision in the same way, as in the femoral, directing the tube downwards.



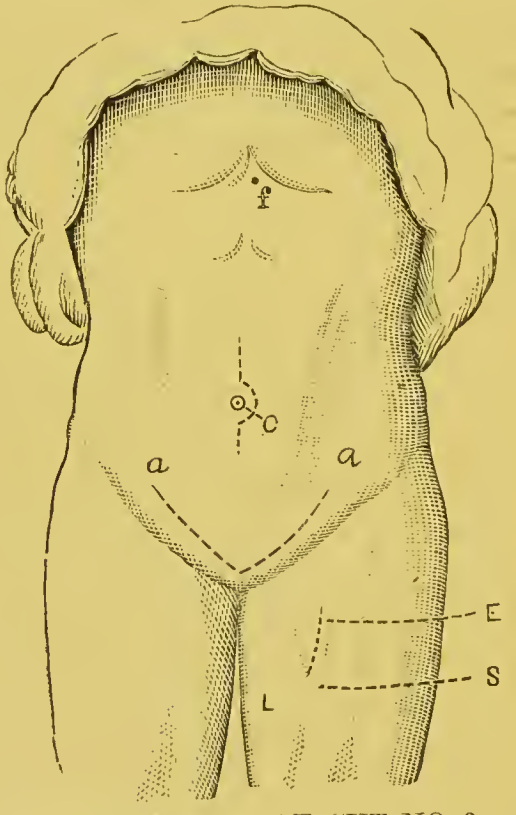
DESCRIPTION OF CUT No. 2.

A. Biceps muscle extending from the shoulder to below the elbow.
B. Brachial artery extending from the arm pit to the elbow.
C. The radial artery used in taking the pulse.
D. The ulnar artery extending to the little finger part of the hand.

RAISING THE BRACHIAL ARTERY.

To raise the brachial artery, first locate the biceps muscle and find the inner and lower border with the ends of fingers; feel for the little cord—the median nerve; make the incision from one to three inches long, owing to size of the arm, making the lower part of the incision about three-fourths of an inch to one inch above the bend of the elbow (the arm should extend out from the body) cutting first, the integument or skin; second, fascia and fat; third, deep fascia. This will bring you down on top of the median nerve. The artery and two veins will lie a

little deeper and towards the body of the biceps muscle. Fourth, with the aneurism needle raise the artery and veins up and separate them, allowing the veins to drop down. Scrape off the sheath from the artery and, fifth, with the forceps pinch up the artery and make a transverse or cross incision about one-fourth the way through the artery, and with the scissors make a little slit downwards. This will enable you to put the tube inside the inner lining of the artery. Sixth, tie the tube in the artery with one tight and one bow knot; and one loose tight knot below, until the fluid has made its appearance, when the last knot should be tied up tight. For the usual anomalies of the brachial artery, see discription of the brachial artery.



DESCRIPTION OF CUT NO. 3.

a a. Poupart's ligament.
E. Femoral artery.
S. Sartorius or tailor's muscle.
L. Adductor longus muscle.
c. Umbilicus or navel.

f. Point for making incision to inject the thoracic and abdominal cavities, also for tapping the right ventricle of the heart for removing the blood and relieving discolorations.

TO RAISE THE FEMORAL ARTERY.

Draw a line from the center of Poupart's ligament to the inner part of the knee joint, or with the tips of the fingers start at the center of Poupart's ligament and follow the valley down the leg, and at a distance of from two to two and one-half inches below the ligament, begin the incision, making it from one and one-half to three inches long, according to size of the thigh and amount of fat. Cut through, first, the skin; second, the fascia and fat; third, the deep fascia which underlies the fat and just over the muscles, and with the forceps pinch up this deep fascia, and with the scalpel split it full length the incision; fourth, scrape off the fat laying on the artery, and, fifth, with the aneurism needle take or tear off the sheath covering the artery and vein, raise the artery to the surface and pinch it up with the forceps and make a transverse or cross incision, then with the scissors make a little slit downwards, attach the tube, pointing it upwards, and tie the tube in with one tight and one bow knot and one loose tight knot below, until the fluid makes its appearance, and then tie up tight. Inject slowly, keeping the body on an incline.

FUNERAL ETIQUETTE.

A CHAPTER ON FUNERAL ETIQUETTE.

To be an undertaker and perform the duties of such in a manner that the appreciative people expect and approve, requires of you an education in matters of an entirely different kind from that needed for the transaction of ordinary business. You are aware that the ceremonies that attend and follow death are the saddest of all, and are such as the public look upon as occasions for the deepest respect, which causes the position of the undertaker to be one by which his adaptations either commend him, or is the cause of his failure, to be employed. It is fast becoming a custom to place the details of the funeral in the hands of the undertaker, and we are glad to know that such is the case, as it places a responsibility upon you such as compels you to be better informed on subjects concerning the profession, and places you in an honored and respectable position.

One of the first duties you owe the profession is cleanliness, and as neatness should follow cleanliness, it is necessary that you pride yourself in both if you desire to command respect in your position. Whether an undertaker is possessed of personal attractions or not it is his duty to make himself comely and as agreeable as the surroundings will permit; to appear neatly attired in good clothes, well-combed hair, clean hands, well-trimmed beard or cleanly-shaved face, and to have concealed behind them a character and reputation such as are found only in a gentlemen.

Upon entering the house to which you have been summoned, the first thing you should do would be to remove your hat. This is a polite custom in all cultured communities.

In case the occupants of the house to which you are called are intimate friends, you may be allowed to give a brief expression of sympathy, but otherwise we consider it an invasion to go into conversation of a sympathetic kind, unless you may be requested so to do, which is not often the case. This matter of sympathy is well in its place, and in one position it is badly disrespected when you use it for the purpose of advertising

yourself. We do not consider that you are employed for any such a purpose, particularly at that moment when a home is supposed to better appreciate quietness.

If the person deceased is that of a gentleman, there should be no objection to the undertaker's being allowed to view the body on his admission to the house, as it often needs a bandage that has not been thought of which can be by him placed in position. After viewing the remains and doing that which in your judgment needs to be done at once, or after introducing your assistant for that purpose, it will be well to retire to the parlor or reception room and await the appearance of the person by whom you are to be informed concerning the arrangements of the funeral, and from him request such information as you may desire concerning clothing, etc. In case the subject is that of a female, you will not be permitted to introduce yourself in the manner prescribed for gentlemen, but in such a way as to obtain the information you need concerning the condition of the body, clothing, etc., without allowing yourself to go beyond the bounds of propriety.

We believe it the duty of the undertaker to furnish the customary door scarf used to designate the place of death, and make it a rule to ascertain before leaving the house if it is desired that you should place a scarf upon the door. There is no regularly adapted scarf for this purpose, but we believe custom has generally allowed the scarf for a person of thirty years and over to be black, for that of a person between the ages of eighteen and thirty black and white, and for that one between infancy and the age of eighteen all white. This rule cannot be relied upon as pleasing to all, so it would be advisable to ask for information as to whether a scarf is wanted, and if so, what kind, before taking the responsibility of placing it on the door.

After having the body properly prepared and placed in such a part of the house as the friends may desire, it is your place to inform some friend of the family that the remains have been placed in the position requested, and that you will retire until such a time, when you will return and be pleased to perform any duty the friends may wish.

If the service is to be held at the house it is necessary that the undertaker receive the guests unless the family prefer some friend to perform that duty, and in case they should, it would be your duty to assist them in performing it. Should

you be called upon to perform this duty, it would be your place to appear at the residence a few minutes (say one-half hour) before the time appointed for the funeral service to begin, and to be informed as to what part of the house the minister will occupy; as to whether there will be music or not, and if so what position to assign the singers, and obtain any information that will enable you to carry out the friends' wishes without confusion, such as the place the family will occupy during the service; if they will take leave of the remains before the service or after, and if an invitation shall be given to the guests to view the remains after the service, or if it is their desire that the casket be closed before the minister introduces the service. In case the remains are to be viewed only until time for the service to begin, it will be your duty to occupy a position that will enable you to quietly request it of each person before being seated, after which you are supposed to know what seats it will be proper to assign them. When a funeral is to be held at a church and the deceased is to be escorted there by an order, it is the proper place for the order to be in advance of the remains, or at least all but those reserved for bearers, who may occupy a position on each side of the hearse or be seated in a carriage preceding it, as the occasion requires. It is customary at many places when having a body exposed to view at a church, to have the bearers convey the casket to the vestibule or auditorium, and after placing it in its proper position the congregation may pass out and view the remains while passing. In cases of this kind invariably request the immediate friends of the deceased to "take leave" at their home, so, after the congregation have passed out the casket may be closed and the relatives follow the remains to the hearse or their carriages.

The duty of the pall bearer is a responsible one, and often an embarrassing one through the fault of the undertaker, and in order to avoid confusion as much as possible, it is best to pair them off before taking their position alongside the casket. Before they enter upon duty it would be well for you to take their hats to the carriage they will occupy, so that they may not be bothered with them in going out of the house or church. Another thing easily and quickly done is to remove the stools or pedestals at the time the casket is raised from them, and before the bearers start to the hearse.

The order of procession cannot come under this head, but

we desire to point out the position as we admire it. The carriages containing the undertaker, clergyman and bearers precede the hearse, immediately following which are those containing the near relations and friends respectively. The undertaker or his assistant is expected to place the carriages in position and point out their occupants before leaving the house and church, and is expected to give attention to the first carriage, at least, in unloading at the cemetery. When entering the cemetery we are under the orders of the sexton, who should designate the drivers we should follow.

CODE OF ETHICS.

CODE OF ETHICS.

ADOPTED BY THE NATIONAL FUNERAL DIRECTORS' ASSOCIATION, AT CHICAGO, OCTOBER 2, 1884.

A funeral director, on entering the profession, as he becomes thereby entitled to all its privileges and immunities, incurs an obligation to exert his best abilities to maintain its dignity and honor, to exalt its standing, to extend the bounds of its usefulness. He should, therefore, observe strictly such laws as are instituted for the government of its members. There is no profession from the members of which greater purity of character and a higher standard of moral excellence are required than the funeral director; and to attain such eminence is a duty every funeral director owes to his profession and to the public. It is due the latter, as without it he cannot command their respect and confidence, and to both because no scientific attainments can compensate for the want of correct moral principles. It is also incumbent upon the members of the profession to be temperate in all things. The nature of our calling takes us to the inner circle of the families that are afflicted. Secrecy and delicacy, when required by peculiar circumstances, should be strictly observed. The obligation of secrecy extends beyond the period of our professional services. None of the privacies of personal and domestic life should ever be divulged.

It is derogatory to the dignity of our profession to resort to public advertisements, or private cards, or handbills, inviting the attention of the public to any of the wares connected with our profession. We should take strong grounds against advertising in the daily prints. All funeral directors should rely on their professional abilities and acquirements, and it ought to be the only acknowledged right of an individual to the exercise and honor of his profession.

No funeral director should ever interfere with an order where another funeral director has been previously called, and under

no circumstances should one funeral director take an order from another unless the first one be paid in full for his services, and is willing to withdraw.

In case two funeral directors are called at the same time, to attend the same case, both should show a willingness to withdraw, and leave the choice with the family.

No funeral director should ever shrink from the faithful discharge of his duties in case of epidemic and contagious diseases. When pestilence prevails, it is their duty to face the danger and continue their labors, even at the jeopardy of their own lives.

When a funeral director is called in case of sudden death or accident, because the regular family funeral director is not at hand, he ought to resign the case to the funeral director who has been doing that family's work if he is desired by the family.

When a funeral director accompanies the remains and funeral party to a distant place, his duties should cease when they arrive at their destination, and the remains are placed in the care of another funeral director. All that the funeral director who accompanies the party does after that should be as a friend of the family, or as an assistant to the funeral director who has charge of the final arrangements.

Whenever a funeral director orders from a distant place a corpse prepared and shipped to his care, all expenses should be charged to the funeral director giving the order, and it should be considered a professional obligation, and payment made at once.

There is, perhaps, no profession, after that of the sacred ministry, in which a high-toned morality is more imperatively necessary than that of a funeral director. High moral principles are his only safe guide.

PARLIAMENTARY PRACTICE.

PARLIAMENTARY PRACTICE.

INTRODUCTION.

1. The most usual and convenient mode of organizing a deliberative assembly is the following: The members being assembled together in the place and at the time appointed for their meeting, one of them, addressing himself to the others, requests them to come to order; the members thereupon seating themselves, and giving their attention to him, he suggests the propriety and necessity of their being organized before proceeding to business, and requests the members to nominate some person to act as chairman of the meeting; a name or names being thereupon mentioned, he declares that such a person (whose name was first heard by him) is nominated for chairman, and puts a question that the person so named be requested to take the chair. If this question should be decided in the negative, another nomination is then to be called for, and a question put upon the name mentioned (being that of some other person) as before; and so on until a choice is effected. When a chairman is elected, he takes the chair, and proceeds in the same manner to complete the organization of the assembly, by the choice of a secretary and such other officers, if any, as may be deemed necessary.

2. An organization thus effected may be, and frequently is, sufficient for all the purposes of the meeting; but if, for any reason, it is desired to have a greater number of officers, or to have them selected with more deliberation, it is the practice to organize temporarily, in the manner above mentioned, and then to refer the subject of a permanent organization, and the selection of persons to be nominated for the several offices, to a committee; upon whose report the meeting proceeds to organize itself conformably thereto, or in such other manner as it thinks proper.

3. The presiding officer is usually denominated the *president*, and the recording officer the *secretary;* though sometimes these officers are designated respectively as the *chairman* and

clerk. It is not unusual, besides a president, to have one or more vice-presidents, who take the chair occasionally, in the absence of the president from the assembly, or when he withdraws from the chair to take part in the proceedings as a member, but who at other times, though occupying seats with the president, act merely as members. It is frequently the case, also, that several persons are appointed secretaries, in which case the first named is considered as the principal officer. All the officers are ordinarily members of the assembly,[1] and as such, entitled to participate in the proceedings; except that the presiding officer does not usually engage in the debate, and votes only when the assembly is equally divided.

4. In all deliberative assemblies, the members of which are chosen or appointed to represent others, it is necessary, before proceeding to business, to ascertain who are duly elected and returned as members; in order not only that no person may be admitted to participate in the proceedings who is not regularly authorized to do so, but also that a list of the members may be made for the use of the assembly and its officers.

5. The proper time for this investigation is after the temporary and before the permanent organization, or when the assembly is perfectly organized, in the first instance, before it proceeds to the transaction of any other business; and the most convenient mode of conducting it is by the appointment of a committee to receive and report upon the credentials of the members. The same committee may also be charged with the investigation of rival claims, where any such are presented.

6. When a question arises, involving the right of a member to his seat, such member is entitled to be heard on the question, and he is then to withdraw from the assembly until it is decided; but if by the indulgence of the assembly, he remains in his place during the discussion, he ought neither to take any further part in it, nor to vote when the question is proposed; it being a fundamental rule of all deliberative assemblies, that those members whose rights as such are not yet set aside constitute a judicial tribunal to decide upon the cases of those whose rights of membership are called in ques-

1. In the legislative bodies, the clerk is seldom or never a member, and in some the presiding officer is not a member; as, for example, in the Senate of the United States, the Senate of New York, and in some other State Senates.

tion. Care should always be taken, therefore, in the selection of the officers, and in the appointment of committees, to name only those persons whose rights as members are not objected to.

7. The place where an assembly is held being in its possession, and rightfully appropriated to its use, no person is entitled to be present therein but by the consent of the assembly; and consequently, if any person refuse to withdraw when ordered to do so, or conduct himself in a disorderly or improper manner, the assembly may unquestionably employ sufficient force to remove such person from the meeting.

8. Every deliberative assembly, by the mere fact of its being assembled and constituted, does thereby necessarily adopt and become subject to those rules and forms of proceeding, without which it would be impossible for it to accomplish the purposes of its creation. It is perfectly competent, however, for every such body—and where the business is of considerable interest and importance, or likely to require some time for its accomplishment, it is not unusual—to adopt also certain special rules for the regulation of its proceedings. Where this is the case, these latter supersede the ordinary parliamentary rules in reference to all points to which they relate, or add to them in those particulars in reference to which there is no parliamentary rule; leaving what may be called the common parliamentary law in full force in all other respects.

9. The judgment, opinion, sense, or will of a deliberative assembly is expressed, according to the nature of the subject, either by a resolution, order, or vote. When it commands, it is by an *order;* but facts, principles, its own opinions or purposes, are most properly expressed in the form of a *resolution;* the term *vote* may be applied to the result of every question decided by the assembly. In whatever form, however, a question is proposed, or by whatever name it may be called, the mode of proceeding is the same.

10. The judgment or will of any number of persons considered as an aggregate body is that which is evidenced by the consent or agreement of the greater number of them; and the only mode by which this can be ascertained, in reference to any particular subject, is for some one of them to begin by submitting to the others a proposition expressed in such a form of words, that, if assented to by the requisite number, it will purport to express the judgment or will of the assembly.

This proposition will then form a basis for the further proceedings of the assembly; to be assented to, rejected, or modified, according as it expresses or not, or may be made to express, the sense of a majority of the members. The different proceedings which take place from the first submission of a proposition, through all the changes it may undergo, until the final decision of the assembly upon it, constitute the subject of the rules of debate and proceeding in deliberative assemblies.

11. If the proceedings of a deliberative assembly were confined to the making of propositions by the individual members, and their acceptance or rejection by the votes of the assembly, there would be very little occasion for rules in such a body. But this is not the case. The functions of the members are not limited to giving an affirmative or negative to such questions as are proposed to them. When a proposition is made, if it be not agreed to or rejected at once, the assembly may be unwilling to consider and act upon it at all; or it may wish to postpone the consideration of the subject to a future time; or it may be willing to adopt the proposition with certain modifications; or lastly, approving the subject-matter, but finding it presented in so crude, imperfect, or objectionable a form, that it can not in that state be considered at all, the assembly may desire to have the proposition further examined and digested before being presented. In order to enable the assembly to take whichever of the courses above indicated it may think proper, and then to dispose of every proposition in a suitable manner, certain motions or forms of question have been invented, which are perfectly adapted for the purpose, and are in common use in all deliberative assemblies.

CHAPTER I.

OF CERTAIN PRELIMINARY MATTERS.

12. Before entering upon the subject of the forms and rules of proceeding in the transaction of business, it will be convenient to consider certain matters of a preliminary nature, which are more or less essential to the regularity, despatch, and efficiency of the proceedings.

SECTION I. QUORUM.

13. In all councils, and other collective bodies of the same

kind, it is necessary that a certain number, called a quorum, of the members, should meet and be present, in order to the transaction of business. This regulation has been deemed essential, to secure fairness of proceeding, and to prevent matters from being concluded in a hasty manner, or agreed to by so small a number of the members as not to command a due and proper respect.

The number necessary to constitute a quorum of any assembly may be fixed by law, as is the case with most of our legislative assemblies; or by usage, as in the English House of Commons; or it may be fixed by the assembly itself; but if no rule is established on the subject, in any of these ways, a majority of the members composing the assembly is the requisite number.

14. No business can regularly be entered upon until a quorum is present; nor can any business be regularly proceeded with when it appears that the members present are reduced below that number; consequently the presiding officer ought not to take the chair until the proper number is ascertained to be present; and if at any time, in the course of the proceedings, notice is taken that a quorum is not present, and, upon the members being counted by the presiding officer, such appears to be the fact, the assembly must be immediately adjourned.

Sect. II. Rules and Orders.

15. Every deliberative assembly, as has already been observed, is, by the fact alone of its existence, subject to those rules of proceeding, without which it could not accomplish the purpose of its creation. It may also provide rules for itself, either in the form of a general code established beforehand, or by the adoption from time to time, during its sitting, of such special rules as it may find necessary.

16. When a code of rules is adopted beforehand, it is usual also to provide therein as to the mode in which they may be amended, repealed, or dispensed with. Where there is no provision, it will be competent for the assembly to act at any time, and in the usual manner, upon questions of amendment or repeal; but in reference to dispensing with a rule or suspending it, in a particular case, if there is no express provision on the subject, it seems that it can only be done by general consent.

The terms "general consent," as used in parliamentary

practice, denote the unanimous opinion of the assembly when their opinion is expressed informally, and not by means of a vote. Whenever, therefore, it is said that the general consent of the assembly is necessary to the adoption of any measure, it is to be understood that, if the question is proposed informally, no objection must be made to it, or that, if proposed in a formal manner, the vote in its favor must be unanimous.

17. When any of the rules adopted by the assembly or in force, relative to its manner of proceeding, is disregarded or infringed, every member has the right to take notice thereof, and to require that the presiding officer, or any other whose duty it is, shall carry such rule into execution; and in that case the rule must be enforced at once, without debate or delay. It is then too late to alter, repeal, or suspend the rule; so long as any one member insists upon its execution, it must be enforced.

Sect. III. Time of Meeting.

18. Every assembly which is not likely to finish its business at one sitting will find it convenient to come to some order or resolution beforehand, as to the time of re-assembling after an adjournment; it being generally embarrassing to fix upon the hour for this purpose at the time when the sitting is about to close, and in connection with the motion to adjourn.

Sect. IV. Principle of Decision.

19. The principle upon which the decisions of all aggregate bodies, such as councils, corporations, and deliberative assemblies, are made, is that of the majority of votes, or suffrages; and this rule holds not only in reference to questions and subjects which admit only of an affirmative on one side and a negative on the other, but also in reference to elections in which more than two persons may receive the suffrages.

20. But this rule may be controlled by a special rule in reference to some particular subject or question; by which any less number than a majority may be admitted, or any greater number required, to express the will of the assembly. Thus it is frequently provided, in legislative assemblies, that one-third or one-fourth only of the members shall be sufficient to require the taking of a question by yeas and nays; and, on the other hand, that no alteration shall take place in any of the rules and orders, without the consent of at least two-thirds, or even a larger number.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE OFFICERS.

21. The usual and necessary officers of a deliberative assembly are those already mentioned, namely, a presiding and a recording officer; both of whom are elected or appointed by the assembly itself, and removable at its pleasure. These officers are always to be elected by absolute majorities, even in those States in which elections are usually effected by a plurality; for the reason that, being removable at the pleasure of the assembly, if any number short of a majority were to elect, a person elected by any such less number would not be able to retain his office for a moment; inasmuch as he might be instantly removed therefrom, on a question made for that purpose, by the votes of those who had voted for other persons on the election; and it is essential to the due and satisfactory performance of the functions of these officers, that they should possess the confidence of the assembly, which they cannot be said to do unless they have the suffrages of at least a majority.

Section I. The Presiding Officer.

22. The principal duties of this officer are the following:

To open the sitting at the time to which the assembly is adjourned, by taking the chair, and calling the members to order;

To announce the business before the assembly, in the order in which it is to be acted upon;

To receive and submit, in the proper manner, all motions and propositions presented by the members;

To put to vote all questions which are regularly moved, or necessarily arise in the course of the proceedings, and to announce the result;

To restrain the members, when engaged in debate, within the rules of order;

To enforce on all occasions the observance of order and decorum among the members;

To receive all messages and other communications, and announce them to the assembly;

To authenticate, by his signature, when necessary, all the acts, orders and proceedings of the assembly;

To inform the assembly, when necessary or when referred to for the purpose, in a point of order or practice;

To name the members (when directed to do so in a particular

case, or when it is made a part of his general duty by a rule) who are to serve on committees; and, in general,

To represent and stand for the assembly, declaring its will, and in all things obeying implicitly its commands.

23. If the assembly is organized by the choice of a president and vice-presidents, it is the duty of one of the latter to take the chair in case of the absence of the president from the assembly, or of his withdrawing from the chair for the purpose of participating in the proceedings.

24. Where but one presiding officer is appointed in the first instance, his place can only be supplied, in case of his absence, by the appointment of a president or chairman *pro tempore;* and in the choice of this officer, who ought to be elected before any other business is done, it is the duty of the secretary to conduct the proceedings.

25. The presiding officer may read sitting, but should rise to state a motion, or put a question to the assembly.

Sect. II. The Recording Officer.

26. The principal duties of this officer consist in taking notes of all the proceedings, and in making true entries in his journal of all "the things done and past" in the assembly; but he is not, in general, required to take minutes of "particular men's speeches," or to make entries of things merely proposed or moved without coming to a vote. He is to enter what is done and past, but not what is said or moved. This is the rule in legislative assemblies. In others, though the spirit of the rule ought to be observed, it is generally expected of the secretary that his record shall be both a journal, and in some sort a report, of the proceedings.

27. It is also the duty of the secretary to read all papers, &c., which may be ordered to be read; to call the roll of the assembly, and take note of those who are absent, when a call is ordered; to call the roll, and note the answers of the members, when a question is taken by yeas and nays; to notify committees of their appointment and of the business referred to them; and to authenticate by his signature (sometimes alone and sometimes in conjunction with the president) all the acts, orders, and proceedings of the assembly.

28. The secretary is also charged with the custody of all the papers and documents of every description, belonging to the assembly, as well as the journal of its proceedings, and is

to let none of them be taken from the table by any member or other person, without the leave or order of the assembly.

29. When but a single secretary or clerk is appointed, his place can only be supplied, during his absence, by the appointment of some one to act *pro tempore*. When several persons are appointed, this inconvenience is not likely to occur.

30. The secretary should stand while reading, or calling the assembly.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF THE MEMBERS.

31. The rights and duties of the members of a deliberative assembly, as regards one another, are founded in and derived from the principle of their absolute equality among themselves. Every member, however humble he may be, has the same right with every other, to submit his propositions to the assembly, to explain and recommend them in discussion, and to have them patiently examined and deliberately decided upon by the assembly; and, on the other hand, it is the duty of every one so to conduct himself, both in debate and in his general deportment in the assembly, as not to obstruct any other member in the enjoyment of his equal rights. The rights and duties of the members require to be explained only in reference to words spoken in debate (whether spoken of a member or otherwise) and to general deportment. The first will be most conveniently noticed in the chapter on debate; the other will be considered in this place.

32. The observance of decorum by the members of a deliberative assembly is not only due to themselves and to one another as gentlemen assembled together to deliberate on matters of common importance and interest, but is also essential to the regular and satisfactory proceeding of such an assembly. The rules on this subject, though generally laid down with reference to decorum in debate, are equally applicable whether the assembly be at the time engaged in debate, or not; and therefore it may be stated generally, that no member is to disturb another or the assembly itself by hissing, coughing, or spitting; by speaking or whispering to other members; by standing up to the interruption of others; by

passing between the presiding officer and a member speaking; going across the assembly-room, or walking up and down in it; taking books or papers from the table, or writing there.

33. All these breaches of decorum are doubtless aggravated by being committed while the assembly is engaged in debate, though equally contrary to the rules of propriety under any other circumstances. Assaults by one member upon another, threats, challenges, affrays, &c., are also high breaches of decorum.

34. It is also a breach of decorum for a member to come into the assembly-room with his head covered, or to remove from one place to another with his hat on, or to put his hat on in coming in or removing it until he has taken his seat; and in many assemblies, especially those which consist of a small number of members, it is not the custom to have the head covered at all.

35. In all instances of irregular and disorderly deportment, it is competent for every member, and is the special duty of the presiding officer, to complain to the assembly, or to take notice of the offence, and call the attention of the assembly to it. When a complaint of this kind is made by the presiding officer, he is said to *name* the member offending; that is, he declares to the assembly that such a member, calling him by name, is guilty of certain irregular or improper conduct. The member who is thus charged with an offence against the assembly is entitled to be heard in his place in exculpation, and is then to withdraw. Being withdrawn, the presiding officer states the offence committed, and the assembly proceeds to consider of the degree and amount of punishment to be inflicted. The assembly may allow the member complained of to remain, when he offers to withdraw; or, on the other hand, it may require him to withdraw, if he do not offer to do so of his own accord. The proceedings are similar when the complaint is made by a member, except that the offence is stated by such member, instead of being stated by the presiding officer.

36. No member ought to be present in the assembly when any matter or business concerning himself is debated; nor, if present by the indulgence of the assembly, ought he to vote on any such question. Whether the matter in question concern his private interest, or relate to his conduct as a member—as for a breach of order, or for matter arising in debate—

as soon as it is fairly before the assembly, the member is to be heard in exculpation, and then to withdraw until the matter is settled. If, notwithstanding, a member should remain in the assembly and vote, his vote may and ought to be disallowed; it being contrary not only to the laws of decency, but to the fundamental principle of the social compact, that a man should sit and act as a judge in his own case.

37. The only punishments which can be inflicted upon its members, by a deliberative assembly of the kind now under consideration, consist of reprimanding, exclusion from the assembly, a prohibition to speak or vote for a specified time, and expulsion: to which are to be added such other forms of punishment, as by apology, begging pardon, &c., as the assembly may see fit to impose, and to require the offender to submit to on pain of expulsion.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE INTRODUCTION OF BUSINESS.

38. The proceedings of a deliberative assembly, in reference to any particular subject, are ordinarily set in motion, in the first instance, by some one of the members either presenting a communication from persons not members, or himself submitting a proposition to the assembly.

39. Communications made to the assembly are of two kinds, namely, those which are merely for its information in matters of fact, and those which contain a request for some action on the part of the assembly, either of a general nature or for the benefit of an individual. The latter only, as they alone constitute a foundation for future proceedings, require to be noticed.

40. Propositions made by members are drawn up and introduced, by motion, in the form which they are intended by the mover to bear, as orders, resolutions, or votes, if they should be adopted by the assembly. These propositions, of whatever nature they may be, are usually denominated motions until they are adopted; they then take the name which properly belongs to them.

41. When a member has occasion to make any communication whatever to the assembly—whether to present a petition

or other paper, or to make or second a motion of any kind, or merely to make a verbal statement—as well as when one desires to address the assembly in debate, he must in the first place, as the expression is, "obtain the floor" for the purpose he has in view. In order to do this, he must rise in his place,[1] and, standing uncovered, address himself to the presiding officer by his title; the latter, on hearing himself thus addressed, calls to the member by his name; and the member may then, but not before, proceed with his business.

42. If two or more members rise and address themselves to the presiding officer at the same time, or nearly so, he should give the floor to the member whose voice he first heard. If his decision should not be satisfactory, any member may call it in question, saying that, in his opinion, such a member (not the one named) was first up; and have the sense of the assembly taken thereon, as to which of the members should be heard. In this case, the question should be first taken upon the name of the member announced by the presiding officer; and, if this question should be decided in the negative, then upon the name of the member for whom the floor was claimed in opposition to him.

43. The mode of proceeding upon such communications from persons not members, as are above alluded to, may be explained by that adopted on the presentation of a petition which may be considered as the representative of the whole class to which it belongs.

44. A petition, in order to be received, should be subscribed by the petitioner himself, with his own hand, either by name or mark, except in case of inability from sickness, or because the petitioner is attending in person; and should be presented or offered, not by the petitioner himself, but by some member to whom it is intrusted for that purpose.

45. The member who presents a petition should previously have informed himself of its contents, so as to be able to state the substance of it on offering it to the assembly, and also to be prepared to say, if any question should be made, that in his judgment it is couched in proper language, and contains nothing intentionally disrespectful to the assembly.

1. In the House of Representatives of Massachussetts, where each member's seat is regularly assigned to him and numbered, it has been found useful, in deciding upon the claims of several competitors for the floor, to prefer one who rises in his place, to a member who addresses the speaker from the area, the passage-ways, or the seat of any other member.

46. Being thus prepared, the member rises in his place, with the petition in his hand, and informs the assembly that he has a certain petition, stating the substance of it, which he thereupon presents or offers to the assembly, and at the same time moves (which, however, may be done by any other member) that it be received; this motion being seconded, the question is put, whether the assembly will receive the petition or not. This is the regular course of proceeding; but in practice there is seldom any question made on receiving a petition; the presiding officer usually taking it for granted that there is no objection to the reception, unless it be stated. If, however, any objection is made to a petition before it has been otherwise disposed of, the presiding officer ought to retrace his steps, and require a motion of reception to be regularly made and seconded

When a petition has been received, the next step in the proceedings is the reading of it by the clerk, for the informa- of the assembly, which though in the usual course of business, and not likely to be objected to after the petition has been received, is nevertheless the subject of a motion and question, to be regularly submitted to the assembly, and voted upon; and until a petition has been read, no order can properly be made respecting it, not even for its lying on the table.

47. If the question of reception is determined in the affirmative, the petition is brought up to the table by the member presenting it, and is there read as of course by the clerk. It is then regularly before the assembly, to be dealt with as it thinks proper; the usual course being either to proceed to consider the subject of it immediately, or to assign some future time for its consideration, or to order it to lie on the table for the examination and consideration of the members individually.

48. Whenever a member introduces a proposition of his own, for the consideration of the assembly, he puts it into the form he desires it should have, and then moves that it be adopted as the resolution, order, or vote of the assembly. If this proposition so far meets the approbation of other members that one of them rises in his place, and seconds it, it may then be put to the question; and the result, whether affirmative or negative, becomes the judgment of the assembly.

49. A motion must be submitted in writing; otherwise the presiding officer will be justified in refusing to receive it; he

may do so, however, if he pleases, and is willing to take the trouble himself to reduce it to writing This rule extends only to principal motions, which when adopted become the act, and express the sense of the assembly; but not to subsidiary or incidental motions,[1] which merely enable the assembly to dispose of the former in the manner it deserves, and which are always in the same form. In the case of a motion to amend, which is a subsidiary motion, the rules admits of an exception, so far as regards the insertion of additional words, which, as well as the principal motion, must be in writing

50. A motion must also be seconded, that is, approved by some one member, at least, expressing his approval by rising, and saying that he seconds the motion; and, if a motion be not seconded, no notice whatever is to be taken of it by the presiding officer, though in practice very many motions, particularly those which occur in the ordinary routine of business, are admitted without being seconded. This rule applies as well to subsidiary as principal motions. The seconding of a motion seems to be required, on the ground that the time of the assembly ought not to be taken up by a question which, for any thing that appears, has no one in its favor but the mover. There are some apparent exceptions to this rule, which will be stated hereafter, in those cases in which one member alone has the right of instituting or giving direction to a particular proceeding; and an actual exception is sometimes made by a special rule, requiring certain motions to be seconded by more than one member.

An exception to the general rule requiring motions to be seconded occurs when it is proposed to proceed with, or to execute, or to enforce, an order of the assembly; as, for example, when it is moved to proceed with an order of the day, or when a member suggests or calls for the enforcement of some order relating to the observance of decorum, or the regularity of proceeding. Thus, in the English House of Commons, a single member may require the enforcement of the standing order for the exclusion of strangers; and so, when the second or other reading of a bill is made the order for a particular day, a motion on that day to read the bill according to the order need not be seconded.

51. When motion has been made and seconded, it is then to

1 Such as, to adjourn, lie on the table, for the previous question, for postponement, commitment, &c.

be stated by the presiding officer to the assembly, and thus becomes a question for its decision; and, until so stated, it is not in order for any other motion to be made, or for any member to speak to it; but when moved, seconded, and stated from the chair, a motion is in the possession of the assembly, and cannot be withdrawn by the mover, but by special leave of the assembly, which must be obtained by a motion made and seconded as in other cases.

The principle stated must not be understood to preclude all proceeding with or allusion to a motion until it has been stated from the chair. On the contrary, after a motion has been made, or made and seconded, but not yet proposed as a question, it is competent for the mover to withdraw or modify it, either of himself, or on the suggestion of some other member or of the presiding officer, and without any motion or vote for the purpose. The rule only requires that, until a motion is regularly seconded and stated, it should not be spoken to as a question for the decision of the assembly, or be made the subject of any motion or proceeding as such. Whilst, therefore, the presiding officer should permit members to make remarks or suggestions for the purposes alluded to, with reference to motions not yet stated, he should be careful to check and prevent all observations which may tend to excite debate; it being a general rule, that no debate can be allowed to take place on any subject, unless there is a question pending at the time.

52. When a motion is regularly before the assembly, it is the duty of the presiding officer to state it if it be not in writing, or to cause it to be read if it be, as often as any member desires to have it stated or read for his information.

53. When a motion or proposition is regularly before the assembly, no other motion can be received, unless it be one which is previous, in its nature, to the question under consideration, and consequently entitled to take its place for the time being, and be first decided.

CHAPTER V.

OF MOTIONS IN GENERAL.

54. When a proposition is made to a deliberative assembly, for its adoption, the proposition may be in such a form as to be put to the question, and the assembly may be in such a state as to be willing to come to a decision upon it at once; and, when this is the case, nothing more can be necessary than to take the votes of the members, and ascertain the result. But a different state of things may, and commonly does, exist; the assembly may prefer some other course of proceeding to an immediate decision of the question in the form in which it is presented; and, as it is proper that every parliamentary body should have the means of fitly disposing of every proposition which may be made to it, certain forms of question have from time to time been invented, and are now in general use, for that purpose. These forms of question may properly be called *subsidiary*, in order to distinguish them from the principal motion or question to which they relate.

55. The different states of mind in which a proposition may be received by a deliberative assembly, and the corresponding forms of proceeding, or subsidiary motions to which they give rise, in order to ascertain the sense of the assembly, are the following:

First, The assembly may look upon the proposition as useless or inexpedient, and may therefore desire to suppress it either for a time or altogether. The subsidiary motions for this purpose are the previous question and indefinite postponement.

Second, The assembly may be willing to entertain and consider of a proposition, but not at the time when it was made; either because more information is wanted by the members individually, or because they desire further time for reflection and examination, or because the assembly is then occupied with some other matter which has more pressing claims upon its pressing attention. The usual motions, under such circumstances, are postponement to some future day or time, and to lie on the table.

Third, The subject-matter of a proposition may be regarded with favor, but the form in which it is introduced may be so defective that a more careful and deliberate consideration than can conveniently be given to it in the assembly

itself may be necessary to put it into a satisfactory form. In this case it is most proper to refer the proposition to a committee.

Fourth, The proposition may be acceptable, and the form in which it is presented so far satisfactory that the assembly may be willing to consider and act upon it, with such alterations and amendments as may be thought proper. The motion adapted to this case is to amend.

56. It is not to be supposed that the subsidiary motions above specified are the only ones that have at any time been adopted or used, or that it is not competent to a deliberative assembly to frame new motions at pleasure; but these are the forms in most common use, and are entirely sufficient for all practical purposes.[1] Neither is it to be supposed that these motions are always applied strictly to the cases to which they most appropriately belong; several of them are frequently used to effect purposes for which others would be more proper. These misapplications will be taken notice of under the heads of the several motions.

CHAPTER VI.

OF MOTIONS TO SUPPRESS.

57. When a proposition is moved which it is supposed may be regarded by the assembly as useless or expedient, and which it may therefore be desirous to get rid of, such proposition may be suppressed for a time by means of the previous question, or altogether by a motion for indefinite postponement.

SECTION I. PREVIOUS QUESTION.

58. The original and proper parliamentary use of the pre-

1 It is usual, in legislative assemblies, to provide by a special rule, both as to the peculiar motions to be used, and the order in which they may be made. Thus the rule in the House of Representatives of Congress (which is also adopted in the House of Representatives of Massachusetts) is, that "when a question is under debate, no motion shall be received, but to adjourn, to lie on the table, for the previous question, to postpone to a day certain, to commit, to amend, to postpone indefinitely; which several motions shall have precedence in the order in which they are arranged."

vious question being, as above stated, the suppression of a main question, it seems proper to consider it as one of the subsidary motions for that purpose, although in this country it has been perverted to a wholly different use, namely, the suppression of debate. This consideration in connection with the difficulty of the subject, and the importance of a correct understanding of it, makes it proper to devote more room to the previous question than needs to be given to most of the other subsidiary motions. It will first be considered according to its original use and intention; and afterwards, as used in this country.

59. There are several motions which give rise to questions previous in their nature to other questions to which they relate; but the term *previous* has been applied exclusively to a motion denominated the *previous question*, which has for its object the suppression of a principal motion or question. This motion was introduced into the House of Commons in England more than two centuries ago, for the purpose of suppressing subjects of a delicate nature relating to high personages, or the discussion of which might call forth observations of an injurious tendency. When first made use of, the form of the motion was, *Shall the main question be put?* and the effect of a decision of it in the negative was to suppress the main question for the whole session. The form of it was afterwards changed to that which it has at present, namely, *Shall the main question be now put?* and the effect of a negative decision of it now is to suppress the main question for the residue of the day only. The operation of this motion, in suppressing the question to which it is applied, results from the principle that no further consideration or discussion can regularly be had of a subject which it has been decided shall not be put to the question; and therefore when, on the motion of the previous question, it has been decided that the principal question shall not now be put, that question is disposed of for the day, and cannot be renewed until the next or some succeeding day. This is the purpose for which the previous question was originally invented, and for which it is still used in the British Parliament.

60. But the previous question may be decided in the affirmative, as well as the negative; that is, that the main question shall now be put: in which case, that question is to be put immediately, without any further debate, and in the form in

which it then exists This operation of the previous question, when decided affirmatively, has led to the use of it for the purpose of suppressing debate on a principal question, and coming to a vote upon it immediately; and this is ordinarily the only object of the previous question, as made use of in the legislative assemblies of the United States.[1] The operation of a negative decision is different in different assemblies: in some—as, for example, in the House of Representatives in Congress—it operates to dispose of the principal or main question by suppressing or removing it from before the house for the day; but in others—as in the House of Representatives of Massachusetts, and in the House of Assembly of New York (in the former by usage only, and in the latter by a rule)—the effect of a negative decision of the previous question is to leave the main question under debate for the residue of the sitting, unless sooner disposed of by taking the question, or in some other manner.

61. In England the previous question is used only for suppressing a main question; the object of the mover is to obtain a decision of it in the negative; and the effect of such a decision, though in strictness only to suppress the question for the day, is practically and by parliamentary usage, to dispose of the subject altogether. In this country the previous question is used chiefly for suppressing debate on a main question; the object of the mover is to obtain a decision of it in the affirmative; and the effect of a decision the other way, though in some assemblies operating technically to suppress the main question for the day only, is, in general, merely to suspend the taking of the question for that day; either leaving the debate to go on during the residue of the day, or the subject to be renewed on the next or some other day. The operation of an affirmative decision is the same in both countries; namely, the putting of the main question immediately, and without further debate, delay, or consideration.

1 Mr. Jefferson (Manual, § xxxiv.) considers this extension of the previous question as abuse. He is of opinion, that "its uses would be as well answered by other more simple parliamentary forms; and therefore it should not be favored, but restricted within as narrow limits as possible." Notwithstanding this suggestion, however, the use of the previous question, as above stated, has become so firmly established, that it cannot now be disturbed or unsettled.

SECT. 11. INDEFINITE POSTPONEMENT.

In order to suppress a question altogether, without coming to a direct vote upon it, in such a manner that it cannot be renewed, the proper motion is for indefinite postponement; that is, a postponement or adjournment of the question, without fixing any day for resuming it. The effect of this motion, if decided in the affirmative, is to quash the proposition entirely; as an indefinite adjournment is equivalent to a dissolution, or the continuance of a suit without day is a discontinuance of it. A negative decision has no effect whatever.

CHAPTER VII.

OF MOTIONS TO POSTPONE.

63. If the assembly is willing to entertain and consider a question, but not at the time when it is moved, the proper course is either to postpone the subject to another day, or to order it to lie on the table.

64. When the members individually want more information than they possess at the time a question is moved, or desire further time for reflection and examination, the proper motion is, to postpone the subject to such future day as will answer the views of the assembly.

65. This motion is sometimes used improperly, to get rid of a proposition altogether, as would be done by an indefinite postponement. This is effected by fixing upon a day which, according to the common course of things, will not arrive until after the assembly has been brought to a close. But a motion worded in this manner is precisely equivalent to a motion for indefinite postponement, and should be so considered and treated.

66. If the assembly has something else before it, which claims its present attention, and is therefore desirous to postpone a particular proposition until that subject is disposed of, such postponement may be effected by means of a motion that the matter in question lie on the table. If this motion prevails, the subject so disposed of may be taken up at any time afterwards, and considered, when it may suit the convenience of the assembly.

When any motion or proposition, report, resolution, or other

matter, has been ordered to lie on the table, it is not in strictness allowable to make any further order, with reference to the same subject, on the same day. The order may, however, be limited to a specific time; as, for example, until some other topic or subject is disposed of.

The proper motion for proceeding with a matter that has been ordered to lie on the table is, that the assembly do now proceed to consider that matter or subject. The motion sometimes made is, that the subject be taken up, or taken up for consideration.

67. This motion is also sometimes made use of for the final disposition of a subject; and it always has that effect, when no motion is afterwards made to take it up.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF MOTIONS TO COMMIT.

68. The third case for the use of a subsidiary motion, as already stated, occurs when the subject-matter of a proposition is regarded with favor; but the form in which it is introduced is so defective, that a more careful and deliberate consideration is necessary than can conveniently be given to it in the assembly itself, in order to put it into a satisfactory form. The course of proceeding then is, to refer the subject to a committee, which is called a commitment; or, if the subject has already been in the hands of a committee, a recommitment.

69. If there is a standing committee of the assembly, whose functions embrace the subject in question, the motion should be to refer it to that committee; if there is no such committee, then the motion should be to refer to a select committee. If it is a matter of doubt, whether a particular standing committee is appropriate or not, and propositions are made for a reference to that committee, and also for a reference to a select committee, the former proposition should be first put to the question.

70. When a subject is referred or recommitted, the committee may be instructed or ordered by the assembly, as to any part or the whole of the duties assigned them; or the subject may be left with them without instructions. In the former case, the instructions must be obeyed, of course; in the latter, the committee have full power over the matter, and may

report upon it in any manner they please, provided they keep within the recognized forms of parliamentary proceedings.

The authority of a committee in reference to the subject-matter referred to its consideration, as well as to the time and manner of its proceeding, depends wholly upon, and is derived from, the order by which the committee is instituted. It can only consider the matter referred to it; and consequently is not at liberty, like the assembly itself, to change the subject under consideration by means of an amendment. This rule is equally applicable to committees of the whole.

71. A part only of a subject may be committed, without the residue; or different parts may be committed to different committees.

72. A commitment with instructions is sometimes made use of, as a convenient mode of procuring further information, and, at the same time, of postponing the consideration of a subject to a future though uncertain day.

CHAPTER IX.

OF MOTIONS TO AMEND.

73. The last case, for the introduction of subsidiary motions, is when the assembly is satisfied with the subject-matter of a proposition, but not with the form of it, or with all its different parts, or desires to make some addition to it. The course of proceeding then is to bring the proposition into the proper form, and make its details satisfactory, by means of amendments, or of certain proceedings of a similar character, and having the same general purpose in view. The latter will be first considered.

SECTION I. DIVISION OF A QUESTION.

74. When a proposition or motion is complicated, that is, composed of two or more parts which are so far independent of each other as to be susceptible of division into several questions, and it is supposed that the assembly may approve of some but not of all these parts, it is a compendious mode of amendment to divide the motion into separate questions, to be separately voted upon and decided by the assembly. This division may take place by the order of the assembly, or a motion regularly made and seconded for the purpose.

75. When a motion is thus divided, it becomes a series of questions to be considered and treated each by itself, as an independent proposition, in the order in which they stand; and when they have all been gone through with, and decided, the result will be the same as if motions to amend by striking out the several parts had been made, and put to the question. When a motion for a division is made, the mover ought to specify in his motion the manner in which he proposes to make the division; and this motion, like every other of the nature of an amendment, is itself susceptible of amendment.

76. It is sometimes asserted, that it is the right of every individual member to have a complicated question (provided it is susceptible of division) divided into its several parts, and a question put separately on each, on his mere demand, and without any motion or any vote of the assembly for that purpose. But this is a mistake; there is no such rule of parliamentary proceeding; a complicated question can only be separated by moving amendments to it in the usual manner, or by moving to a division of it in the manner above stated.

77. It is not unusual, however, for a deliberative assembly to have a rule providing for the division of a complicated question (provided it is susceptible of division) into its several parts, upon the demand of a member. When this is the case, it is for the presiding officer (subject, of course, to the revision of the assembly) to decide, when the division of a motion is demanded, first, whether the proposition is susceptible of division; and, secondly, into how many and what parts it may be divided.

78. A proposition, in order to be divisible, must comprehend points so distinct and entire, that, if one or more of them be taken away, the others may stand entire and by themselves; but a qualifying paragraph, as, for example, an exception or a proviso, if separated from the general assertion or statement to which it belongs, does not contain an entire point or proposition.

Sect. II. Filling Blanks.

79. It often happens that a proposition is introduced with blanks purposely left by the mover to be filled by the assembly, either with times and numbers, or with provisions analogous to those of the proposition itself. In the latter case, blanks are

filled in the same way that other amendments by the insertion of words are made In the former, propositions to fill blanks are not considered as amendments to the question, but as original motions, to be made and decided before the principal question.

80. When a blank is left to be filled with a time or number, motions may be made for that purpose, and the question taken on each by itself, and before another is made; or several motions may be made and pending before any of them are put to the question. This last mode of proceeding, which is the most usual as well as convenient, requires that the several propositions should be arranged, and the question taken on them, in such order as will the soonest and with the most certainty enable the assembly to come to an agreement.

81. In determining upon the order to be adopted, the object is not to begin at that extreme which, and more, being within every man's wish, no one can vote against it, and yet, if it should be carried in the affirmative, every question for more would be precluded; but at that extreme which will be likely to unite the fewest, and then to advance or recede until a number or time is reached, which will unite a majority.

82. Hence, when several different propositions are made for filling blanks with a time or number, the rule is, that if the *larger* comprehends the *lesser*, as in a question to what day a postponement shall take place, the number of which a committee shall consist, the amount of a fine to be imposed, the term of an imprisonment, the term of irredeemability of a loan, or the *terminus in quem* in any other case, the question must begin *a maximo*, and be first taken upon the greatest or farthest, and so on to the least or nearest, until the assembly comes to a vote; but if the *lesser* includes the *greater*, as in questions on the limitation of the rate of interest, on the amount of a tax, on what day the session of a legislative assembly shall be closed by adjournment, on what day the next session shall commence, or the *terminus a quo* in any other case, the question must begin *a minimo*, and be first taken on the least or nearest, and so on to the greatest or most remote, until the assembly comes to a vote.[1]

1 The above is the rule as laid down by Mr. Jefferson (§ 33), and holds where it is not superseded by a special rule, which is generally the case in our legislative assemblies; as, for example, in the Senate of the United States, the rule is, that in filling blanks the *largest* sum and

Sect. III. Addition, Separation, Transposition.

83. When the matters contained in two separate propositions might be better put into one, the mode of proceeding is, to reject one of them, and then to incorporate the substance of it with the other by way of amendment. A better mode, however, if the business of the assembly will admit of its being adopted, is to refer both propositions to a committee, with instructions to incorporate them together in one.

84. So, on the other hand, if the matter of one proposition would be more properly distributed into two, any part of it may be struck out by way of amendment, and put into the form of a new and distinct proposition. But in this, as in the former case, a better mode would generally be to refer the subject to a committee.

85. In like manner, if a paragraph or section requires to be transposed, a question must be put on striking it out where it stands, and another for inserting it in the place desired.

86. The numbers prefixed to the several sections, paragraphs, or resolutions, which constitute a proposition, are merely marginal indications, and no part of the text of the proposition itself; and, if necessary, they may be altered or regulated by the clerk, without any vote or order of the assembly.

Sect. IV. Modification or Amendment by the Mover.

87. The mover of a proposition is sometimes allowed to modify it after it has been stated as a question by the presiding officer; but as this is equivalent to a withdrawal of the motion in order to substitute another in its place, and since, as has already been seen, a motion regularly made, seconded, and proposed, cannot be withdrawn without leave, it is clear that the practice alluded to rests only upon general consent; and that, if objected to, the mover of a proposition must obtain the permission of the assembly, by a motion and question for the purpose, in order to enable him to modify his proposition.

88. So, too, when an amendment has been regularly moved and seconded, it is sometimes the practice for the mover of the

longest time shall be first put. In the House of Commons, in England, the rule established by usage is, that the *smallest* sum and the *longest* time shall be first put.

proposition to which it relates to signify his consent to it, and for the amendment to be thereupon made, without any question being taken upon it by the assembly. As this proceeding, however, is essentially the same with that described in the preceding paragraph, it of course rests upon the same foundation, and is subject to the same rule.

Before a motion has been stated, the mover, as already remarked (§ 56), may modify or withdraw it at his pleasure; after it has been stated, he can only withdraw or modify it by general consent; he may, however, like any other member, move to amend. The acceptance by the mover, of an amendment moved or suggested by some other member, stands upon the same ground.

Sect. V. General Rules Relating to Amendments.

89. All amendments of which a proposition is susceptible, so far as form is concerned, may be effected in one of three ways: namely, either by inserting or adding certain words; or by striking out certain words; or by striking out certain words, and inserting or adding others. These several forms of amendment are subject to certain general rules, which, being equally applicable to them all, require to be stated beforehand.

90. *First Rule.* When a proposition consists of several sections, paragraphs, or resolutions, the natural order of considering and amending it is to begin at the beginning, and to proceed through it in course by paragraphs; and, when a latter part has been amended, it is not in order to recur back, and make any alteration or amendment of a former part.

91. *Second Rule.* Every amendment which can be proposed, whether by striking out, or inserting, or striking out and inserting, is itself susceptible of amendment; but there can be no amendment of an amendment to an amendment: this would be such a piling of questions one upon another, as would lead to great embarrassment; and, as the line must be drawn somewhere, it has been fixed by usage after the amendment to the amendment. The object which is proposed to be effected by such a proceeding must be sought by rejecting the amendment to the amendment, in the form in which it is proposed, and then moving it again in the form in which it is wished to be amended, in which it is only an amendment to an amendment; and, in order to accomplish this, he who desires to amend an amendment should give notice, that, if

rejected in the form in which it is presented, he shall move it again in the form in which he desires to have it adopted.

92. Thus, if a proposition consist of A B, and it is proposed to amend by inserting C D, it may be moved to amend the amendment by inserting E F; but it cannot be moved to amend this amendment, as, for example, by inserting G. The only mode by which this can be reached is to reject the amendment in the form in which it is presented, namely, to insert E F, and to move it in the form in which it is desired to be amended, namely, to insert E G F.

93. *Third Rule.* Whatever is agreed to by the assembly, on a vote, either adopting or rejecting a proposed amendment, cannot be afterwards altered or amended.

94. Thus, if a proposition consist of A B, and it is moved to insert C, if the amendment prevail, C cannot be afterwards amended, because it has been agreed to in that form; and so, if it is moved to strike out B, and the amendment is rejected, B cannot afterwards be amended, because a vote against striking it out is equivalent to a vote agreeing to it as it stands.

95. *Fourth Rule.* Whatever is disagreed to by the assembly, on a vote, cannot be afterwards moved again. This rule is the converse of the preceding, and may be illustrated in the same manner.

96. Thus, if it is moved to amend A B by inserting C, and the amendment is rejected, C cannot be moved again; or if it is moved to amend A B by striking out B, and the amendment prevails, B cannot be restored: because in the first case C, and in the other B, have been disagreed to by a vote.

97. *Fifth Rule.* The inconsistency or incompatibility of a proposed amendment with one which has already been adopted is a fit ground for its rejection by the assembly, but not for the suppression of it by the presiding officer, as against order; for, if questions of this nature were allowed to be brought within the jurisdiction of the presiding officer, as matters of order, he might usurp a negative on important modifications, and suppress or embarrass instead of subserving the will of the assembly.

Sect. VI. Amendments by Striking Out.

98. If an amendment is proposed by striking out a particular paragraph or certain words, and the amendment is rejected, it cannot be again moved to strike out the same

words or a part of them; but it may be moved to strike out a part of the same words with others, provided the coherence to be struck out be so substantial as to make these, in fact, different propositions from the former.

99. Thus, if a proposition consist of A B C D, and it is moved to strike out B C, if this amendment is rejected, it can not be moved again; but it may be moved to strike out A B, or A B C, or B C D, or C D.

100. If an amendment by striking out is agreed to, it can not be afterwards moved to insert the same words struck out, or a part of them; but it may be moved to insert the same words with others, provided the coherence to be inserted, make these propositions substantially different from the first.

101. Thus, if the proposition A B C D is amended by striking out B C, it cannot be moved to insert B C again; but it may be moved to insert B C with other words, or B with others, or C with others.

102. When it is proposed to amend by striking out a particular paragraph, it may be moved to amend this amendment in three different ways; namely, either by striking out a part only of the paragraph, or by inserting or adding words, or by striking out and inserting.

103 Thus, if it is moved to amend the proposition A B C D by striking out B C, it may be moved to amend this amendment by striking out B only or C only, or by inserting E, or by striking out B or C and inserting E.

104. In the case of a proposed amendment by striking out, the effect of voting upon it, whether it be decided in the affirmative or negative, according to the third and fourth rules above mentioned, renders it necessary for those who desire to retain the paragraph to amend it, if any amendment is necessary, before the vote is taken on striking out, as, if struck out, it cannot be restored, and, if retained, it cannot be amended.

105. As an amendment must necessarily be put to the question before the principal motion, so the question must be put on an amendment to an amendment before it is put on the amendment; but, as this is the extreme limit to which motions may be put upon one another, there can be no precedence of one over another among amendments to amendments; and consequently they can only be moved one at a time, or, at all events, must be put to the question in the order in which they are moved.

106. When a motion for striking out words is to put the question, the parliamentary form always is, whether the words *shall stand as part* of the principal motion, and not whether they *shall be struck out.* The reason for this form of stating the question probably is, that the question may be taken in the same manner on a part as on the whole of the principal motion; which would not be the case if the question was stated on striking out, inasmuch as the question on the principal motion, when it comes to be stated, will be on agreeing to it, and not on striking out or rejecting it. Besides, as an equal division of the assembly would produce a different decision of the question, according to the manner of stating it, it might happen, if the question on the amendment was stated on striking out, that the same question would be decided both affirmatively and negatively by the same vote.[1]

107. On a motion to amend by striking out certain words, the manner of stating the question is, first to read the passage proposed to be amended, as it stands; then the words proposed to be struck out; and, lastly, the whole passage as it will stand if the amendment is adopted

1 The common, if not the only, mode of stating the question in the legislative assemblies of this country, is on *striking out.*

SECT. VII. AMENDMENTS BY INSERTING.

108. If an amendment is proposed by inserting or adding a paragraph or words, and the amendment is rejected, it cannot be moved again to insert the same words or a part of them; but it may be moved to insert the same words with others, or a part of the same words with others, provided the coherence really make them different propositions.

109. Thus, if it is moved to amend the proposition A B by inserting C D, and the amendment is rejected, C D cannot be again moved; but it may be moved to insert C E, or D E, or C D E.

110. If it is proposed to amend by inserting a paragraph, and the amendment prevails, it cannot be afterwards moved to strike out the same words or a part of them; but it may be moved to strike out the same words with others,[1] or a part of the same words with others, provided the coherence be such as to make these propositions really differ from the first.

111. Thus, if in the example above supposed the amendment prevails, and C D is inserted, it cannot be afterwards moved to strike out C D; but it may be moved to strike out A C, or A C D, or D B, or C D B.

112. When it is proposed to amend by inserting a paragraph, this amendment may be amended in three different ways; namely, either by striking out a part of the peragraph, or by inserting something into it, or by striking out and inserting.

113. Thus, if it proposed to amend A B by inserting C D, this amendment may be amended either by striking out C or D, or inserting E, or by striking out C or D and inserting E.

114. When it is proposed to amend by inserting a paragraph those in favor of the amendment should amend it, if necessary, before the question ts taken; because, if it is rejected, it cannot be moved again, and, if received, it cannot be amended.

115. There is no precedence of one over another in amendments to amendments by inserting, any more than in amendments to amendments by striking out.

116. On a motion to amend by inserting a paragraph, the manner of stating the question is, first to read the passage to

1 This is the common case of striking out a paragraph, and having meanded it by inserting words.

be amended, as it stands; then the words proposed to be inserted; and, lastly, the whole passage as it will stand if the amendment prevails.

Sect. VIII. Amendment by Striking out and Inserting.

117. The third form of amending a proposition, namely, by striking out certain words and inserting others in their place, is, in fact, a combination of the other two forms, and may accordingly be divided into those two forms, either by a vote of the assembly, or on the demand of a member, under a special rule to that effect.[1] When the parliamentary form of putting the question, on a motion to strike or leave out words, is adopted, the question is first stated that the words proposed to be struck out stand as part of the motion. If this question passes in the negative, a question is then to be stated on inserting the words proposed, which may be amended like any other motion to insert or add words. If the question on the standing of the words passes in the affirmative, the residue of the motion to strike out and insert falls without a question. According to the parliamentary form, therefore, a motion to strike out and insert is necessarily divided. The remark of Mr. Jefferson, quoted in the note to § 117, that "the question, if desired, is then to be divided," &c., may be explained by supposing that when a motion was made to strike out and insert, which was not objected to, the question was proposed in the terms of the motion; but that, if objected to, it was then to be put, of course, in the parliamentary form. In the House of Delegates of Virginia, of which Mr. Jefferson had been a member, the parliamentary form of stating the question was in use.

118. If the motion is divided, the question is first to be taken on striking out, and, if that is decided in the affirmative, then on inserting; but if the former is decided in the negative, the latter falls, of course. On a division, the proceedings are the same in reference to each branch of the question, beginning with the striking out, as if each branch had been moved by itself.

1 Mr. Jefferson (§ xxxv.) says: "The question, if desired, is then to be divided," &c.; but, as he makes no exception of a motion to strike out and insert, when treating of the subject of division, and does not here state it as an exception, he undoubtedly supposes the division in this case to be made in the regular and usual manner.

119. If the motion to strike out and insert is put to the question and divided, and is decided in the negative, the same motion cannot be made again; but it may be moved to strike out the same words, and, 1, insert nothing; 2, insert other words; 3, insert the same words with others; 4, insert a part of the same words with others; 5, strike out the same words with others, and insert the same; 6, strike out a part of the same words with others, and insert the same; 7, strike out other words, and insert the same; and, 8, insert the same words, without striking out anything.

120. If the motion to strike out and insert is decided in the affirmative, it cannot be then moved to insert the words struck out or a part of them, or to strike out the words inserted or a part of them; but it may be moved, 1, to insert the same words with others; 2, to insert a part of the same words with others; 3, to strike out the same words with others; or, 4, to strike out a part of the same words with others.

121. When it is proposed to amend by striking out and inserting, this amendment may be amended in three different ways in the paragraph proposed to be struck out, and also in the paragraph proposed to be inserted; namely, by striking out, or inserting, or striking out and inserting. And those who are in favor of either paragraph must amend it before the question is taken, for the reasons already stated; namely, that, if decided in the affirmative, the part struck out cannot be restored, nor can the part inserted be amended; and, if decided in the negative, the part proposed to be struck out cannot be amended, nor can the paragraph proposed to be inserted be moved again.

122. On a motion to amend by striking out certain words and inserting others, the manner of stating the question is, first, to read the whole passage to be amended, as it stands; then the words proposed to be struck out; next, those to be inserted; and, lastly, the whole passage as it will stand when amended.

[122 *a*. The foregoing rules in regard to amendments are undoubtedly made as clear and plain as the nature of the subject admits of. It is not to be expected, however, that any persons excepting those whose specialty is the knowledge and practice of parliamentary procedure would acquire sufficient familiarity with them to be able to apply them readily in practice. The principle on which they rest is that the same prop-

osition changed only in form should not be brought twice before the assembly. It is essential to any tolerably rapid transaction of business, that no proposition should by a simple change of form be brought twice before the assembly. If it desires further to consider the matter, it can always do so by a vote to reconsider, which I suppose it may do so long as the assembly remains in session, although it might be necessary to suspend a general rule for that purpose.

It is believed that the application of this principle will carry a presiding officer satisfactorily over most of the difficulties of the subject.—ED.]

SECT. IX AMENDMENTS CHANGING THE NATURE OF A QUESTION.

123. The term "amendment" is in strictness applicable only to those changes of a proposition by which it is improved; that is, rendered more effectual for the purpose which it has in view, or made to express more clearly and definitely the sense which it is intended to express. Hence it seems proper that those only should undertake to amend a proposition, who are friendly to it; but this is by no means the rule. When a proposition is regularly moved and seconded, it is in the possession of the assembly, and cannot be withdrawn but by its leave; it has then become the basis of the future proceedings of the assembly, and may be put into any shape, and turned to any purpose, that the assembly may think proper.

124. It is consequently allowable to amend a proposition in such a manner as entirely to alter its nature, and to make it bear a sense different from what it was originally intended to bear; so that the friends of it, as it was first introduced, may themselves be forced to vote against it in its amended form.

125. This mode of proceeding is sometimes adopted for the purpose of defeating a proposition, by compelling its original friends to unite with those who are opposed to it, in voting for its rejection. Thus in the British House of Commons, Jan. 29, 1765, a resolution being moved "That a general warrant for apprehending the authors, printers, or publishers of a libel, together with their papers, is not warranted, by law, and is an high violation of the liberty of the subject," it was moved to amend this motion by prefixing the following paragraph, namely: "That, in the particular case of libels, it is proper and necessary to fix, by a vote of this house only, what ought

to be deemed the law in respect of general warrants; and, for that purpose, at the time when the determination of the legality of such warrants in the instance of a most seditious and treasonable libel, is actually depending before the courts of law, for this house to declare" — *that a general warrant for apprehending the authors, printers, or publishers of a libel, together with their papers, is not warranted by law, and is an high violation of the liberty of the subject.* The amendment was adopted, after a long debate; and then the resolution as amended was immediately rejected without a division.[1]

126. But sometimes the nature of a proposition is changed by means of amendments, with a view to its adoption in a sense the very opposite of what it was originally intended to bear. The following is a striking example of this mode of proceeding: In the House of Commons, April 10, 1744, a resolution was moved, declaring "That the issuing and paying to the Duke of Aremberg the sum of forty thousand pounds sterling to put the Austrian troops in motion, in the year 1742, was a dangerous misapplication of public money, and destructive of the rights of parliament." The object of this resolution was to censure the conduct of the ministers; and the friends of the ministry, being in a majority, might have voted directly upon the motion, and rejected it. But they preferred to turn it into a resolution approving of the conduct of ministers on the occasion referred to; and it was accordingly moved to amend by leaving out the words "a dangerous misapplication," &c., to the end of the motion, and inserting instead thereof the words "necessary for putting the said troops in motion, and of great consequence to the common cause." The amendment being adopted, it was resolved (reversing the original proposition) "That the issuing and paying to the Duke of Aremberg the sum of forty thousand pounds sterling to put the Austrian troops in motion in the year 1742, was necessary for putting

1 This mode of defeating a measure, however, is not always successful. In 1780, Mr. Dunning having made a motion, in the House of Commons, "That, in the opinion of this house, the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished," Dundas, lord-advocate of Scotland, in order to defeat the motion, proposed to amend by inserting after the words "*in the opinion of this house*" the words "*it is now necessary to declare that*," &c. But this amendment, instead of intimidating the friends of the original motion, was at once adopted by them; and the resolution passed as amended.

the said troops in motion, and of great consequence to the common cause."

127. It is a mode of defeating a proposition, somewhat similar to that above mentioned, to carry out or extend the principle of it, by means of amendments, so as to show the inconvenience, absurdity, or danger of its adoption, with such evident clearness that it becomes impossible for the assembly to agree to it. Thus, a motion having been made in the House of Commons "for copies of all the letters written by the lords of the admiralty to a certain officer in the navy," it was moved to amend the motion by adding these words: "which letters may contain orders, or be relative to orders not executed and still subsisting." The amendment being adopted, the motion as amended was unanimously rejected.

128. It will be seen, from the foregoing examples, that, as the mover of a proposition is under no restriction as to embracing incongruous matters under the same motion, so, on the other hand, the assembly may engraft upon a motion, by way of amendment, matter which is not only incongruous with, but entirely opposed to, the motion as originally introduced; and in legislative assemblies it is not unusual to amend a bill by striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting an entirely new bill; or, to amend a resolution by striking out all after the words "Resolved that," and inserting a proposition of a wholly different tenor.

In some legislative assemblies, the House of Representatives of Massachusetts for example, it is provided by a special rule, that no motion or proposition, relative to a different subject from the one under consideration, shall be admitted under color of an amendment. When a rule of this nature is in force, the assembly, by proceeding to consider a given subject, places itself in the situation of a committee to whom that subject is referred.

CHAPTER X.

OF THE ORDER AND SUCCESSION OF QUESTIONS.

129. It is a general rule, that when a proposition is regularly before a deliberative assembly for its consideration, no other proposition or motion can regularly be made or arise so as to take the place of the former, and be first acted upon, unless it be either, *first*, a privileged question; *secondly*, a subsidiary question; or, *thirdly*, an incidental question or motion.

130. All these motions take the place of the principal motion, or main question as it is usually called, and are to be first put to the question; and among themselves. also, there are some which, in like manner, take the place of all the others. Some of these questions merely supersede the principal question, until they have been decided; and when decided, whether affirmatively or negatively, leave that question as before. Others of them also supersede the principal question until they are decided; and, when decided one way, dispose of the principal question, but, if decided the other way, leave it as before.

SECT. I. PRIVILEGED QUESTIONS.

131. There are certain motions or questions which, on account of the superior importance attributed to them, either in consequence of a vote of the assembly, or in themselves considered, or of the necessity of the proceedings to which they lead, are entitled to take the place of any other subject or proposition which may then be under consideration, and to be first voted upon and decided by the assembly. These are called privileged questions, because they are entitled to precedence over other questions, though they are of different degrees among themselves. Questions of this nature are of three kinds, namely: *first*, motions to adjourn; *secondly*, motions or questions relative to the rights and privileges of the assembly, or of its members individually; and, *thirdly*, motions for the orders of the day.

ADJOURNMENT.

132. A motion to adjourn takes the place of all other questions whatsoever;[1] for otherwise the assembly might be kept sitting against its will, and for an indefinite time; but, in order to entitle this motion to precedence, it must be simply to "adjourn," without the addition of any particular day or time. And as the object of this motion, when made in the midst of some other proceeding and with a view to supersede a question already proposed, is simply to break up the sitting, it does not admit of any amendment by the addition of a particular day, or in any other manner; though, if a motion to adjourn is made when no other business is before the assembly, it may be amended like other questions.

The reason why a motion to adjourn moved for the purpose of superseding or suppressing a pending question, is not susceptible of amendment, is, that if amended, it would at once become inadmissible, in point of order, on the ground of its being introductory to a second question, having no privilege to take the place of a question already pending, and entitled to be first disposed of.

133. A motion to adjourn is merely "that this assembly do now adjourn"; and, if it is carried in the affirmative, the assembly is adjourned to the next sitting day; unless it has previously come to a resolution, that, on rising, it will adjourn to a particular day; in which case it is adjourned to that day.

134. An adjournment without day—that is, without any time being fixed for re-assembling—would, in the case of any other than a legislative assembly, be equivalent to a dissolution.[2]

135. When a question is interrupted by an adjournment be-

1 It is commonly said that a motion to adjourn is always in order, but this is not precisely true. The question of adjournment can indeed, be moved repeatedly on the same day, yet, in strictness, not without some intermediate question being proposed, after one motion to adjourn is disposed of, and before the next motion is made for adjourning; as, for example, an amendment to a pending question, or for the reading of some paper. The reason of this is, that, until some other proceeding has intervened, the question already decided is the same as that newly moved.

2 It is quite common, when the business of a deliberative assembly has been brought to a close, to *adjourn* the assembly *without day*. A better form is to *dissolve it*; as an adjournment without day, if we regard the etymology of the word *adjourn*, is a contradiction in terms.

fore any vote or question has been taken upon it, it is thereby removed from before the assembly, and will not stand before it, as a matter of course, at its next meeting, but must be brought forward in the usual way.

[135 *a*. When the motion to adjourn involves the merits of the main question, it is, strictly speaking, debatable, unless by special rule it is otherwise provided. (Cushing, Law and Practice of Leg. Ass., Art. 1625.)

Adjournment ordinarily means a postponement of the business of the assembly to some definite time, either indicated specially in the motion, or provided for by some general rule; but, when the assembly is adjourned without any such provision, it is of course dissolved, and would not sit again until called together anew, according to the provisions of its organic law. There is sometimes a little confusion of ideas arising from the use of the term *session*, which may mean a single sitting, or the aggregate of all the sittings from the commencement until the dissolution of the assembly. As the adjournment from sitting to sitting is merely a continuation of the same session, it is sometimes stated that, independently of any special rule, on such an adjournment the business would be taken up at the next meeting where it was left; and of course this may be provided by special rule. Where the adjournment effects a dissolution of the assembly, the business before it would necessarily fall to the ground, unless, by virtue of some special rule or organic law of the assembly, such a result should be avoided.—Ed.]

QUESTIONS OF PRIVILEGE.

136. The questions next in relative importance, and which supersede all others for the time being, except that of adjournment, are those which concern the rights and privileges of the assembly or of its individual members; as, for example, when the proceedings of the assembly are disturbed or interrupted, whether by strangers or members, or where a quarrel arises between two members; and, in these cases, the matter of privilege supersedes the question pending at the time, together with all subsidiary and incidental ones, and must be first disposed of. When settled, the question interrupted by it is to be resumed at the point where it was suspended.

SECT. II. INCIDENTAL QUESTIONS.]

137. Incidental questions are such as arise out of other questions, and are consequently to be decided before the questions which give rise to them. Of this nature are, *first*, questions of order; *second*, motions for the reading of papers, &c.; *third*, leave to withdraw a motion; *fourth*, suspension of a rule; and, *fifth*, amendment of an amendment.

QUESTIONS OF ORDER.

138. It is the duty of the presiding officer of a deliberative assembly to enforce the rules and orders of the body over which he presides, in all its proceedings, and this without question, debate, or delay, in all cases in which the breach of order, or the departure from rule, is manifest. It is also the right of every member, taking notice of the breach of a rule, to insist upon the enforcement of it in the same manner.

139. When any question of this nature arises in the course of any other proceeding, it necessarily supersedes the further consideration of the subject out of which it arises, until that question is disposed of; then the original motion or proceeding revives, and resumes its former position, unless it has been itself disposed of by the question of order.

140. When a question of order is raised, as it may be by any one member, it is not stated from the chair, and decided by the assembly, like other questions, but is decided, in the first instance, by the presiding officer, without any previous debate or discussion by the assembly. If the decision of the presiding officer is not satisfactory, any one member may object to it, and have the question decided by the assembly. This is called *appealing* from the decision of the chair. The question is then stated by the presiding officer, on the appeal; namely, *Shall the decision of the chair stand as the decision of the assembly?* and it is thereupon debated and decided by the assembly in the same manner as any other question, except that the presiding officer is allowed to take a part in the debate, which on ordinary occasions he is prohibited from doing.

The statement that questions of order are to be decided, in the first instance, by the presiding officer, without any previous debate or discussion by the assembly, must not be understood to mean that the presiding officer is precluded from allowing members to express their opinions upon the point of

order, before himself deciding it; but merely, that the matter is not then to be debated and discussed, as a question to be decided by the assembly. The presiding officer, before expressing his own opinion, may, if he pleases, take the opinions of other members. It is manifest, however, that, when he is ready to give his own opinion, he may proceed at once, and cannot be precluded from doing so by any other member claiming a right to be first heard.

141. When the reading of a paper is evidently for information, and not for delay, it is the usual practice for the presiding officer to allow of it, unless objection is made, in which case leave must be asked; and this is seldom refused, where there is no intentional or gross abuse of the time and patience of the assembly.

142. When, in the course of a debate or other proceeding, the reading of a paper is called for, and a question is made upon it, this question is incidental to the former, and must be first decided.

WITHDRAWAL OF A MOTION.

143. A motion, when regularly made, seconded, and proposed from the chair, is then in the possession of the assembly, and cannot be withdrawn by the mover, or directly disposed of in any manner but by a vote; hence, if the mover of a question wishes to modify it, or to substitute a different one in its place, he must obtain the leave of the assembly for that purpose; which leave can only be had, if objection is made, by a motion and question in the usual mode of proceeding.

A motion, when made, seconded, and stated, cannot be withdrawn without the general consent, or, if put formally to the question, the unanimous vote of the assembly.

144. If this motion is decided in the affirmative, the motion to which it relates is thereby removed from before the assembly, as if it had never been moved; if in the negative, the business proceeds as before.

SUSPENSION OF A RULE.

145. When any contemplated motion or proceeding is rendered impracticable, by reason of the existence of some special rule by which it is prohibited, it has become an established practice in this country to suspend or dispense with the rule, for the purpose of admitting the proceeding or motion

which is desired. This can only be done by a motion and question; and, where this course is taken in order to a motion having reference to a proposition then under consideration, a motion to suspend the rule supersedes the original question for the time being, and is first to be decided.

146. It is usual, in the code of rules adopted by deliberative assemblies, and especially legislative bodies, to provide that a certain number exceeding a majority, as two-thirds or three-fourths, shall be competent to the suspension of a rule in a particular case; where this is not provided, there seems to be no other mode of suspending or dispensing with a rule than by general consent.

AMENDMENT OF AMENDMENTS.

147. In treating of amendments, it has already been seen that it is allowable to amend a proposed amendment, and that the question on such sub-amendment must necessarily be put and decided before putting the question on the amendment. The former is incidental to the latter, and supersedes it for the time being.

SECT. III. SUBSIDIARY QUESTIONS.

148. Subsidiary or secondary questions or motions, as has already been stated, are those which relate to a principal motion, and are made use of to enable the assembly to dispose of it in the most proper manner. These motions have the effect to supersede, and in some cases, when decided one way, to dispose of the principal question. They are also of different degrees among themselves; and, according to their several natures, supersede and sometimes dispose of one another.

149. The subsidiary motions in common use are the following: namely, lie on the table, the previous question, postponement either indefinitely or to a day certain, commitment, and amendment.

150. It is a general rule, with certain exceptions which will be immediately mentioned, that subsidiary motions cannot be applied to one another: as, for example, suppose a motion to postpone, commit, or amend a principal question, it cannot be moved to suppress the motion to postpone, &c., by putting a previous question on it; or, suppose the previous question is moved, or a commitment or amendment of a main question, it cannot be moved to postpone the previous question or the

motion for commitment or amendment. The reasons for this rule are: 1, it would be absurd to separate the appendage from its principal; 2, it would be a piling of questions one on another, which, to avoid embarrassment, is not allowed; and, 3, the same result may be reached more simply by voting against the motion which it is attempted to dispose of by another secondary motion.

151. The exceptions to the rule above stated are, that motions to postpone (either to a day certain or indefinitely), to commit, or to amend a principal question, may be amended for the reason that "the useful character of amendment gives it a privilege of attaching itself to a secondary and privileged motion;" that is, a subsidiary motion to carry out and improve another may be applied to that other, but a subsidiary motion to dispose of or suppress another is not admissible. Hence the subsidiary motions above mentioned may be amended.

152. A previous question, however, cannot be amended, the nature of it not admitting of any change. Parliamentary usage has fixed its form to be, "Shall the main question be now put?" that is, at this instant; and, as the present instant is but one, it cannot admit of any modification, and to change it to the next day or any other moment is without example or utility. For the same reasons, also, that the form of it is fixed by parliamentary usage, and is already as simple as it can be, a motion to lie on the table cannot be amended.

LIE ON THE TABLE.

153. This motion is usually resorted to when the assembly has something else before it which claims its present attention, and therefore desires to lay aside a proposition for a short but indefinite time, reserving to itself the power to take it up when convenient. This motion takes precedence of and supersedes all the other subsidiary motions.

154. If decided in the affirmative, the principal motion, together with all the other motions, subsidiary and incidental, connected with it, is removed from before the assembly, until it is again taken up; which it may be by motion and vote, at any time when the assembly pleases.

155. If decided in the negative, the business proceeds in the same manner as if the motion had never been made.

PREVIOUS QUESTION.

156. This motion has already been described (58), and the nature and effect of it fully stated. It stands in an equal degree with all the other subsidiary motions, except the motion to lie on the table; and consequently, if first moved, is not subject to be superseded by a motion to postpone, commit, or amend.

157. If the previous question is moved before the others above mentioned, and put to the question, it has the effect to prevent those motions from being made at all; for if decided affirmatively, to-wit, that the main question shall now be put, it would of course be contrary to the decision of the assembly, and therefore against order, to postpone, commit, or amend; and if decided negatively, to-wit, that the main question shall not now be put, this takes the main question out of the possession of the assembly for the day, so that there is then nothing before it to postpone, commit or amend.[1]

POSTPONEMENT.

158. The motion to postpone is either indefinite or to a day certain, and, in both these forms, may be amended; in the former, by making it to a day certain; in the latter, by substituting one day for another. But, in the latter case, propositions to substitute different days for that originally named bear more resemblance to propositions for filling blanks than they do to amendments, and should be considered and treated accordingly.

159. If, therefore, a motion is made for an indefinite postponement, it may be moved to amend the motion by making it to a day certain. If any other day is desired, it may be moved as an amendment to the amendment; or it may be moved as an independent motion, when the amendment has been rejected.

160. If a motion is made for a postponement to a day certain, it may be amended by the substitution of a different day; but in this case a more simple and effectual mode of proceed-

1 In the House of Representatives of Massachusetts, as the effect of a negative decision of the previous question is not to remove the principal question from before the house, that question is still open to postponement, commitment, or amendment, notwithstanding such negative decision.

ing is to consider the day as a blank to be filled in the usual manner, beginning with the longest time.

161. This motion stands in the same degree with motions for the previous question, to commit, and to amend; and, if first made, is not susceptible of being superseded by them.

162. If a motion for postponement is decided affirmatively, the proposition to which it is applied is removed from before the assembly, with all its appendages and incidents, and consequently there is no ground for either of the other subsidiary motions; if decided negatively, that the proposition shall not be postponed, that question may then be suppressed by the previous question, or committed, or amended.

COMMITMENT.

163. A motion to commit, or recommit (which is the term used when the proposition has already been once committed), may be amended by the substitution of one kind of committee for another, or by enlarging or diminishing the number of the members of the committee as originally proposed, or by instructions to the committee.

164. This motion stands in the same degree with the previous question, and postponement, and, if first made, is not superseded by them; but it takes precedence of a motion to amend.

165. If decided affirmatively, the proposition is removed from before the assembly, and consequently there is no ground for the previous question or for postponement or amendment; if negatively, to-wit, that the principal question shall not be committed, that question may then be suppressed by the previous question, or postponed, or amended.

AMENDMENT.

166. A motion to amend, as has been seen, may be itself amended. It stands in the same degree only with the previous question and indefinite postponement; and neither, if first moved, is superseded by the other.

167. But this motion is liable to be superseded by a motion to postpone to a day certain; so that, amendment and postponement competing, the latter is to be first put. The reason is, that a question for amendment is not suppressed by postponing or adjourning the principal question, but remains before the assembly whenever the main question is resumed;

for otherwise it might happen that the occasion for other urgent business might go by and be lost by length of debate on the amendment, if the assembly had no power to postpone the whole subject.

168. A motion to amend may also be superseded by a motion to commit; so that the latter, though subsequently moved, is to be first put, because, "in truth, it facilitates and befriends the motion to amend."

169. The effect of both a negative and an affirmative decision of amendments has already been considered (89 to 122).

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE ORDER OF PROCEEDING.

170. When several subjects are before the assembly, that is, on their table for consideration (for there can be but a single subject *under* consideration at the same time), and no priority has been given to any one over another, the presiding officer is not precisely bound to any order as to what matters shall be first taken up; but is left to his own discretion, unless the assembly on a question decide to take up a particular subject.

171. A settled order of business, however, where the proceedings of an assembly are likely to last a considerable time, and the matters before it are somewhat numerous, is useful if not necessary for the government of the presiding officer, and to restrain individual members from calling up favorite measures, or matters under their special charge, out of their just time. It is also desirable for directing the discretion of the assembly, when a motion is made to take up a particular matter, to the prejudice of others which are of right entitled to be first attended to in the general order of business.

172. The order of business may be established in virtue of some general rule, or by special orders relating to each particular subject, and must, of course, necessarily depend upon the nature and amount of the matters before the assembly.

173. The natural order in considering and amending any paper which consists of several distinct propositions, is, to begin at the beginning and proceed through it by paragraphs; and this order of proceeding, if strictly adhered to, as it should always be in numerous assemblies, would prevent any amend-

ment in a former part from being admissible after a latter part had been amended; but this rule does not seem to be so essential to be observed in smaller bodies, in which it may often be advantageous to allow of going from one part of a paper to another, for the purpose of amendments.

174. To this natural order of beginning at the beginning, there is one exception according to parliamentary rules, where a resolution or series of resolutions, or other paper, has a preamble or title; in which case, the preamble or title is postponed until the residue of the paper is gone through with.

175. In considering a proposition consisting of several paragraphs, the course is, for the whole paper to be read entirely through, in the first place, by the clerk; then a second time, by the presiding officer, by paragraphs, pausing at the end of each, and putting questions for amending, if amendments are proposed; and, when the whole paper has been gone through with in this manner, the presiding officer puts the final question on agreeing to or adopting the whole paper, as amended or unamended.

176. When a paper which has been referred to a committee, and reported back to the assembly, is taken up for consideration, the amendments only are first read, in course, by the clerk. The presiding officer then reads the first, and puts it to the question, and so on until the whole are adopted or rejected, before any other amendment is admitted, with the exception of an amendment to an amendment. When the amendments reported by the committee have been thus disposed of, the presiding officer pauses, and gives time for amendments to be proposed in the assembly to the body of the paper (which he also does, if the paper has been reported without amendments, putting no questions but on amendments proposed); and, when through the whole, he puts the question on agreeing to or adopting the paper, as the resolution, order, &c., of the assembly.

177. The final question is sometimes stated merely on the acceptance of the report; but a better form is on agreeing with the committee in the resolution, order, or whatever else the conclusion of the report may be, as amended or without amendment; and the resolution or order is then to be entered in the journal as the resolution, &c., of the assembly, and not as the report of the committee accepted.

178. When the paper referred to a committee is reported

back, as amended, in a new draft (which may be and often is done, where the amendments are numerous and comparatively unimportant), the new draft is to be considered as an amendment, and is to be first amended, if necessary, and then put to the question as an amendment reported by the committee; or, the course may be first to accept the new draft as a substitute for the original paper, and then to treat it as such.

179. It often happens, that, besides a principal question, there are several others connected with it, pending at the same time, which are to be taken in their order: as, for example, suppose, *first*, a principal motion; *second*, a motion to amend; *third*, a motion to commit; *fourth*, the preceding motions being pending, a question of order arises in the debate, which gives occasion, *fifth*, to a question of privilege; and this leads, *sixth*, to a subsidiary motion, as, to lie on the table. The regular course of proceeding requires the motion to lie on the table, to be first put; if this is negatived, the question of privilege is then settled; after that comes the question of order; then the question of commitment; if that is negatived, the question of amendment is taken; and, lastly, the main question. This example will sufficiently illustrate the manner in which questions may grow out of one another, and in what order they are to be decided.[1]

180. When a motion is made and seconded, it is the duty of the presiding officer to propose it to the assembly; until this is done, it is not a question before the assembly, to be acted upon or considered in any manner; and consequently it is not then in order for any member to rise either to debate it, or to make any motion in relation to it whatever.

181. It is therefore a most unparliamentary and abusive proceeding to allow a principal motion, and a subsidiary one relating to it, to be proposed and stated together, and to be put to the question in their order; as is done when a member moves a principal question, a resolution, for example, and, at the same time, the previous question, or that the resolution lie on the table. In such a case, the presiding officer should take no notice whatever of the subsidiary motion, but should propose the principal one by itself in the usual manner, before allowing any other to be made. Other members then would

1 The order of motions, for the disposal of any question, is usually fixed by a special rule, in legislative assemblies. See note to ¶ 56.

not be deprived of their rights in debate, &c., in relation to the subject moved.

182. When a member has obtained the floor, he cannot be cut off from addressing the assembly on the one question before it; nor, when speaking, can he be interrupted in his speech by any other member rising, and moving an adjournment, or for the orders of the day, or by making any other privileged motion of the same kind: it being a general rule, that a member in possession of the floor, or proceeding with his speech, cannot be taken down or interrupted but by a call to order; and the question of order being decided, he is still to be heard through. A call for an adjournment, or for the orders of the day, or for the question, by gentlemen in their seats, is not a motion; as no motion can be made without rising, and addressing the chair, and being called to by the presiding officer. Such calls for the question are themselves breaches of order, which, though the member who has risen may respect them as an expression of the impatience of the assembly at further debate, do not prevent him from going on if he pleases.

The rule stated in this paragraph, that a member speaking cannot rightfully be interrupted in his speech, but by a call to order, does not make it the duty of the presiding officer to refuse to hear a member who rises and addresses the chair whilst another is speaking; for, if this were the case, the presiding officer could very rarely know whether there might not be occasion for the interruption, and would thus be in danger of keeping the assembly in ignorance of matters which it might be of the highest concern for them to know. When, therefore, a member rises whilst another is speaking, and addresses the chair, he should inform the presiding officer that he rises to a point of order, or to the orders of the assembly, or to a matter of privilege. It will then be the duty of the presiding officer to direct the member speaking to suspend his remarks, or to resume his seat, and the member rising to proceed with the statement of his point or other matter of order or of privilege. If the latter, on proceeding, discloses matter which shows that the interruption was proper, the subject so introduced must first be disposed of; and then the member who was interrupted is to be directed to proceed with his speech. If it appears that there was no sufficient ground for the interruption, the member rising is to be directed to resume his seat; and the member interrupted, to proceed with his speech.

Every member, therefore, possessing the right to interrupt another in his speeeh, on a proper occasion, any wanton abuse of this right, for the purpose of personal annoyance, is liable to censure and punishment; it being itself a breach of order unnecessarily and wantonly to call or interrupt another member to order.

In reference to the occasions on which the interruption of a member speaking is allowed, it is to be observed that they are not restricted, as the language of § 182 might seem to imply, to breaches of order in debate, on the part of the member speaking. Any matter of privilege affecting the assembly itself, or any of its members, of which the assembly ought to have instant information, furnishes such an occasion; as, for example, where access to the plaec of sitting of the assembly is obstructed, or the person of a member is attaeked, or where something connected with the proceedings of the assembly requires instant attention, as where it beeomes necessary to have lights; or where something oceurs relative to the member himself who is speaking, as where he is annoyed and disturbed by noise and disorder, or where, in consequence of his strength failing him, it becomes necessary that he should finish his speech sitting.

CHAPTER XII.

OF ORDER IN DEBATE.

183. Debate in a deliberative assembly must be distinguished from forensic debate, or that which takes place before a judicial tribunal: the former being, in theory at least, more the expression of individual opinions among the members of the same body; the latter more a contest for victory between the disputants, before a distinct and independent body; the former not admitting of replies, the latter regarding reply as the right of one of the parties.[1]

184. It is a general rule, in all deliberative assemblies, that the presiding officer shall not participate in the debate or other

[1] An exception to this rule is sometimes made in favor of the mover of a question, who is allowed, at the close of the debate, to reply to the arguments brought against his motion; but this is a matter of favor and indulgence, and not of right.

proceedings, in any other capacity than as such officer. He is only allowed, therefore, to state matters of fact within his knowledge; to inform the assembly on points of order or the course of proceeding, when called upon for that purpose, or when he finds it necessary to do so; and, on appeals from his decision on questions of order, to address the assembly in debate.

Section 1. As to the Manner of Speaking.

185. When a member desires to address the assembly on any subject before it (as well as to make a motion), he is to rise and stand up in his place, uncovered, and to address himself not to the assembly or any particular member, but to the presiding officer, who, on hearing him, calls to him by his name, that the assembly may take notice who it is that speaks, and give their attention accordingly. If any question arises, as to who shall be entitled to the floor where several members rise at or nearly at the same time, it is decided in the manner already described (47), as to obtaining the floor to make a motion.

186. It is customary, indeed, for the presiding officer, after a motion has been made, seconded, and proposed, to give the floor to the mover,[1] in preference to others, if he rises to speak; or, on resuming a debate after an adjournment, to give the floor, if he desires it, to the mover of the adjournment in preference to other members; or, where two or more members claim the floor, to prefer him who is opposed to the measure in question: but, in all these cases, the determination of the presiding officer may be overruled by the assembly.

187. It is sometimes thought, that when a member in the course of debate breaks off his speech, and gives up the floor to another for a particular purpose, he is entitled to it again as of right, when that purpose is accomplished; but though this is generally conceded, yet, when a member gives up the floor for one purpose, he does so for all; and it is not possible for the presiding officer to take notice of and enforce agreements of this nature between members.

1 Sometimes a member, instead of proposing his motion at first, proceeds with his speech; but in such a case he is liable to be taken down to order, unless he states that he intends to conclude with a motion, and informs the assembly what that motion is; and then he may be allowed to proceed.

188. No person, in speaking, is to mention a member then present by his name; but to describe him by his seat in the assembly, or as the member who spoke last, or last but one, or on the other side of the question, or by some other equivalent expression. The purpose of this rule is to guard as much as possible against the excitement of all personal feeling, either of favor or of hostility, by separating, as it were, the official from the personal character of each member, and having regard to the former only in the debate.

189. If the presiding officer rises up to speak, any other member who may have risen for the same purpose ought to sit down, in order that the former may be first heard; but this rule does not authorize the presiding officer to interrupt a member whilst speaking, or to cut off one to whom he has given the floor: he must wait like other members, until such member has done speaking.

The rule stated in this paragraph does not, of course, preclude the presiding officer from interrupting a member whilst speaking, whenever a proper occasion occurs for such an interruption: as, for example, when the member himself is guilty of a breach of order.

190. A member, whilst speaking, must remain standing in his place, uncovered; and, when he has finished his speech, he ought to resume his seat: but if unable to stand without pain or inconvenience, in consequence of age, sickness, or other infirmity, he may be indulged to speak sitting.

Sect. II. As to the Matter in Speaking.

191. Every question that can be made in a deliberative assembly is susceptible of being debated[1] according to its nature; that is, every member has the right of expressing his opinion upon it. Hence it is a general rule, and the principal one relating to this matter, that, in debate, those who speak are to confine themselves to the question, and not to speak impertinently or beside the subject. So long as a member has the floor, and keeps within the rule, he may speak for as long a time as he pleases; though, if an uninteresting speaker trespasses too much upon the time and patience of the assembly,

1 In legislative bodies it is usual to provide that certain questions, as for example, to adjourn, to lie on the table, for the previous question, or as to the order of business, shall be decided without debate.

the members seldom fail to show their dissatisfaction in some way or other, which induces him to bring his remarks to a close.

In the legislative assemblies of this country, it is usual to provide by a special rule, that certain questions shall be decided without debate. Among these, the most common is the motion to adjourn. In the absence, however, of a special rule restricting the right of debate in reference to some particular subject, every question, with the exception, perhaps, of those which require unanimity, that may be moved, may be debated. In both houses of parliament, important debates have frequently taken place on motions, as, for example, to adjourn, which in the legislative assemblies of this country would not generally be considered debatable.

192. It is also a rule, that no person, in speaking, is to use indecent language against the proceedings of the assembly, or to reflect upon any of its prior determinations, unless he means to conclude his remarks with a motion to rescind such determination; but while a proposition under consideration is still pending, and not adopted, though it may have been reported by a committee, reflections on it are not reflections on the assembly. The rule applies equally to the proceedings of committees, which are, indeed, the proceedings of the assembly.

193. Another rule in speaking is, that no member is at liberty to digress from the matter of the question, to fall upon the person of another, and to speak reviling, nipping, or unmannerly words of or to him. The nature or consequences of a measure may be reprobated in strong terms; but to arraign the motives of those who advocate it, is a personality, and against order.

194. It is very often an extremely difficult and delicate matter to decide whether the remarks of a member are pertinent or relevant to the question; but it will in general be safe for the presiding officer to consider them so, unless they very clearly reflect in an improper manner either upon the person or motives of a member, or upon the proceedings of the assembly, or the member speaking digresses from or manifestly mistakes the question.

195. It often happens, in the consideration of a subject, that whilst the general question remains the same, the particular question before the assembly is constantly changing: thus

while, for example, the general question is on the adoption of a series of resolutions, the particular question may, at one moment, be on an amendment; at another, on postponement; and, again, on the previous question. In all these cases, the particular question supersedes, for the time, the main question; and those who speak to it must confine their remarks accordingly. The enforcement of order in this respect requires the closest attention on the part of the presiding officer.

It sometimes happens that a question under debate becomes enlarged rather than narrowed, by the introduction of the subsidiary motion; as, for example, when an amendment is moved which involves in itself the merits of the original proposition, in which case the debate may embrace both.

196. When a member is interrupted by the presiding officer, or called to order by a member, for irrelevancy or departing from the question, a question may be made as to whether he shall be allowed to proceed in his remarks in the manner he was speaking when he was interrupted; but if no question is made, or if one is made and decided in the negative, he is still to be allowed to proceed in order, that is, abandoning the objectionable course of remark.

Sect. III. As to Times of Speaking.

197. The general rule in all deliberative assemblies, unless it is otherwise specially provided, is, that no member shall speak more than once to the same question;[1] although the debate on that question may be adjourned and continued through several days, and although a member who desires to speak a second time has, in the course of the debate, changed his opinion.

198. This rule refers to the same question, technically considered; for if a resolution is moved and debated, and then referred to a committee, those who speak on the introduction of the motion may speak again on the question presented by the report of the committee, though it is substantially the same question with the former; and so members who have spoken on the principal or main question may speak again on all the subsidiary or incidental questions arising in the course of the debate.

1 The mover and seconder, if they do not speak to the question at the time when the motion is made and seconded, have the same right with other members to address the assembly.

The rule stated in this and the preceding paragraphs refers solely to the question technically considered, and is wholly irrespective of the subject matter. No member can speak more than once to the same question; but he may speak to the same subject as often as it is presented in the form of a different question.

199. The rule as to speaking but once on a question, if strictly enforced, will prevent a member from speaking a second time without the general consent of the assembly, so long as there is any other member who himself desires to speak; but, when all who desire to speak have spoken, a member may speak a second time by leave of the assembly.

200. A member may also be permitted to speak a second time in the same debate, in order to clear a matter of fact, or merely to explain himself in some material part of his speech; or to the orders of the assembly, if they be transgressed (although no question may be made), but carefully keeping within that line, and not falling into the matter itself. The expression in this paragraph, "to clear a matter of fact," denotes merely a statement, by a member who has already spoken, of facts which he considers it important for the assembly to be possessed of before coming to a vote upon the question pending.

201. It is sometimes supposed, that, because a member has a right to explain himself, he therefore has a right to interrupt another member whilst speaking, in order to make the explanation; but this is a mistake: he should wait until the member speaking has finished; and if a member, on being requested, yields the floor for an explanation, he relinquishes it altogether.

Sect. IV. As to Stopping Debate.

202. The only mode in use in this country, until recently, for the purpose of putting an end to an unprofitable or tiresome debate, was by moving the previous question; the effect of which motion, as already explained, if decided in the affirmative, is to require the main or principal question to be immediately taken. When this question is moved, therefore, it necessarily suspends all further consideration of the main question, and precludes all further debate or amendment of it: though, as has been seen, it stands in the same degree with postponement, amendment, and commitment, and, unless in

virtue of a special rule, cannot be moved while either of those motions is pending.

203. The other mode of putting an end to debate, which has recently been introduced into use, is for the assembly to adopt beforehand a special order in reference to a particular subject, that, at such a time specified, all debate upon it shall cease, and all motions or questions pending in relation to it shall be decided.

204. Another rule, which has lately been introduced for the purpose of shortening rather than stopping debate is, that no member shall be permitted to speak more than a certain specified time on any question; so that, when the time allotted has expired, the presiding officer announces the fact, and the member speaking resumes his seat.

Sect. V. As to Decorum in Debate.

205. Every member having the right to be heard, every other member is bound to conduct himself in such a manner that this right may be effectual. Hence it is a rule of order, as well as of decency, that no member is to disturb another in his speech by hissing, coughing, spitting; by speaking or whispering; by passing between the presiding officer and the member speaking; by going across the assembly-room, or walking up and down in it; or by any other disorderly deportment which tends to disturb or disconcert a member who is speaking.

206. But if a member speaking finds that he is not regarded with that respectful attention which his equal right demands —that it is not the inclination of the assembly to hear him, and that by conversation or any other noise they endeavor to drown his voice it is his most prudent course to submit himself to the pleasure of the assembly, and to sit down; for it scarcely ever happens, that the members of an assembly are guilty of this piece of ill manners without some excuse or provocation, or that they are so wholly inattentive to one who says any thing worth their hearing.

207. It is the duty of the presiding officer, in such a case, to endeavor to reduce the assembly to order and decorum; but if his repeated calls to order, and his appeals to the good sense and decency of the members, prove ineffectual, it then becomes his duty to call by name any member who obstinately persists in irregularity, whereupon the assembly may require such member to withdraw; who is then to be heard, if he de-

sires it, in exculpation, and to withdraw: then the presiding officer states the offence committed, and the assembly considers of the kind and degree of punishment to be inflicted.

208. If, on repeated trials, the presiding officer finds that the assembly will not support him in the exercise of his authority, he will then be justified, but not till then, in permitting without censure every kind of disorder.

Sect. VI. As to Disorderly Words.

209. If a member, in speaking, makes use of language which is personally offensive to another, or insulting to the assembly, and the member offended, or any other, thinks proper to complain of it to the assembly, the course of proceeding is as follows: The offence of disorderly words may be committed, not only by language used in the course of debate, but also by words used in making a motion or report.

210. The member speaking is immediately interrupted in the course of his speech, by another or several members rising, and calling to order; and the member who objects or complains of the words, is then called upon by the presiding officer to state the words which he complains of, repeating them exactly as he conceives them to have been spoken, in order that they may be reduced to writing by the secretary; or the member complaining, without being so called upon, may proceed at once to state the words either verbally or in writing, and desire that the secretary may take them down at the table. The presiding officer may then direct the secretary to take them down; but if he sees the objection to be a trivial one, and thinks there is no foundation for their being thought disorderly, he will prudently delay giving any such directions, in order not unnecessarily to interrupt the proceedings; though if the members generally seem to be in favor of having the words taken down, by calling out to that effect, or by a vote which the assembly may doubtless pass, the presiding officer should certainly order the secretary to take them down in the form and manner in which they are stated by the member who objects.

211. The words objected to being thus written down, and forming a part of the minutes in the secretary's book, they are next to be read to the member who was speaking, who may deny that those are the words which he spoke; in which case the assembly must decide by a question, whether they are the

words or not.[1] If he does not deny that he spoke those words, or when the assembly has itself determined what the words are, then the member may either justify them, or explain the sense in which he used them, so as to remove the objection of being disorderly; or he may make an apology for them.

212. If the justification or explanation or apology of the member is thought sufficient by the assembly, no further proceeding is necessary; the member may resume and go on with his speech, the assembly being presumed, unless some further motion is made, to be satisfied: but if any two members (one to make and the other to second the motion) think it necessary to state a question, so as to take the sense of the assembly upon the words, and whether the member in using them has been guilty of any offense toward the assembly, the member must withdraw before that question is stated; and then the sense of the assembly must be taken, and such further proceedings had in relation to punishing the member as may be thought necessary and proper.

213. The above is the course of proceeding established by the writers of greatest authority,[2] and ought invariably to be pursued. It might, however, be improved, by the member who objects to words writing them down at once, and thereupon moving that they be made a part of the minutes; by which means the presiding officer would be relieved from the responsibility of determining, in the first instance, upon the character of the words.

214. If offensive words are not taken notice of at the time they are spoken,[3] but the member is allowed to finish his speech, and then any other person speaks, or any other matter of business intervenes, before notice is taken of the words which gave offense, the words are not to be written down, or the member using them censured. This rule is established for the common security of all the members, and to prevent the mistakes which must necessarily happen if words complained of are not immediately reduced to writing.

1 The words, as written down, may be amended so as to conform to what the assembly thinks to be the truth.

2 Mr. Hatsell in England, and Mr. Jefferson in this country.

3 Mr. Jefferson (§ 17) lays it down that "disorderly words are not to be noticed till the member has finished his speech;" but in this he is contradicted by Hatsell, as well as by the general practice of legislative bodies.

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE QUESTION.

215. When any proposition is made to a deliberative assembly, it is called a *motion;* when it is stated or propounded to the assembly for their acceptance or rejection, it is denominated a *question;* and, when adopted, it becomes the *order*, *resolution*, or *vote*, of the assembly.

216. All the proceedings which have thus far been considered have only had for their object to bring a proposition into a form to be put to the question; that is, to be adopted as the sense, will, or judgment of the assembly, or to be rejected, according as such proposition may be found to unite in its favor, or to fail of uniting, a majority of the members.

217. When any proposition, whether principal, subsidiary, or incidental, or of whatever nature it may be, is made, seconded, and stated, if no alteration is proposed, or if it admits of none, or if it is amended, and the debate upon it, if any, appears to be brought to a close, the presiding officer then inquires whether the assembly is ready for the question; and, if no person rises, the question is then stated, and the votes of the assembly taken upon it. Strictly speaking, no question can arise in a deliberative assembly, without a motion being first made and seconded; though sometimes, for the dispatch of business, the presiding officer takes it for granted that a proper and usual motion is made (when in fact it is not), and proposes a question accordingly.

218. The question is not always stated to the assembly in the precise form in which it arises or is introduced. Thus, for example, when a member presents a petition, or the chairman of a committee offers a report, the question which arises, if no motion is made, is, *Shall the petition or the report be received?* and so, when the previous question is moved, it is stated in this form, *Shall the main question be now put?* the question being stated, in all cases, in the form in which it will appear on the journal, if it passes in the affirmative.

219. In matters of trifling importance, or which are generally of course, such as receiving petitions and reports, withdrawing motions, reading papers, etc., the presiding officer most commonly supposes or takes for granted the consent of

the assembly, where no objection is expressed, and does not go through the formality of taking the question by a vote. But if, after a vote has been taken in this informal way and declared, any member rises to object, the presiding officer should consider everything that has passed as nothing, and at once go back and pursue the regular course of proceeding. Thus, if a petition is received, without a question, and the clerk is proceeding to read it in the usual order of business, if any one rises to object, it will be the safest and most proper course for the presiding officer to require a motion for receiving it to be regularly made and seconded.

220. The question being stated by the presiding officer, he first puts it in the affirmative: namely, *As many as are of opinion that* [repeating the words of the question] *say Aye;* and immediately all of the members who are of that opinion answer *Aye.* The presiding officer then puts the question negatively: *As many as are of a different opinion, say No;* and thereupon all of the members who are of that opinion answer *No.* The presiding officer judges by his ear which side has "the more voices," and declares accordingly that *the ayes have it*, or *the noes have it*, as the case may be. If the presiding officer is doubtful as to the majority of voices, he may put the question a second time; and if he is still unable to decide, or if, having decided according to his judgment, any member rises and declares that he believes the *ayes* or the *noes* (whichever it may be) *have it*, contrary to the declaration of the presiding officer,[1] then the presiding officer directs the assembly to divide, in order that the members on the one side and the other may be counted.

221. If, however, any new motion should be made after the presiding officer's declaration, or if a member who was not in the assembly-room when the question was taken should come in, it will then be too late to contradict the presiding officer, and have the assembly divided.

222. The above is the parliamentary form of taking a question, and is in general use in this country; but in some of our legislative assemblies, and especially in those of the New England States, the suffrages are given by the members holding up their right hands, first those in the affirmative, and then

[1] The most common expression is, "I doubt the vote;" or, "That vote is doubted."

those in the negative, of the question. If the presiding officer cannot determine, by the show of hands, which side has the majority, he may call upon the members to vote again; and if he is still in doubt, or if his declaration is questioned, a division takes place. When the question is taken in this manner, the presiding officer directs the members, first on the affirmative side and then on the negative, to manifest their opinion by holding up the right hand.

223. When a division of the assembly takes place, the presiding officer sometimes directs the members to range themselves on different sides of the assembly-room, and either counts them himself, or they are counted by tellers appointed by him for the purpose, or by monitors permanently appointed for that and other purposes; or the members rise in their seats, first on the affirmative and then on the negative; and (standing uncovered) are counted in the same manner. When the members are counted by the presiding officer, he announces the numbers and declares the result. When they are counted by tellers or monitors, the tellers must first agree among themselves, and then the one who has told for the majority reports the number to the presiding officer, who thereupon declares the result.

224. The best mode of dividing an assembly that is at all numerous is for the presiding officer to appoint tellers for each division or section of the assembly-room, and then to require the members, first those in the affirmative and then those in the negative, to rise, stand uncovered, and be counted; this being done on each side, the tellers of the several divisions make their returns, and the presiding officer declares the result.

225. If the members are equally divided, it then becomes the duty of the presiding officer to give the casting vote; in doing which he may, if he pleases, give his reasons.

[225 *a*. Of course it is to be understood that a deliberative assembly would have the same power to regulate the speaker's vote as to make any other rule. This, however, must always be subject to the organic law by which the assembly is constituted.—Ed.]

226. It is a general rule, that every member who is in the assembly-room at the time when the question is stated has not only the right, but is bound, to vote; and, on the other hand, that no member can vote who was not in the room at that time.

227. The only other form of taking the question which requires to be described is one in general use in this country, by means of which the names of the members voting on the one side and on the other are ascertained, and entered the in journal of the assembly. This mode, which is peculiar to the legislative bodies of the United States, is called taking the question by yeas and nays. In order to take a question in this manner it is stated on both sides at once: namely, *As many as are of opinion that*, &c., *will, when their names are called, answer Yes;* and, *As many as are of a different opinion will, when their names are called, answer No.* The roll of the assembly is then called over by the clerk; and each member, as his name is called, rises in his place, and answers *Yes* or *No*, and the clerk notes the answer as the roll is called. When the roll has been gone through, the clerk reads over first the names of those who have answered in the affirmative, and then the names of those who have answered in the negative, in order that if he has made any mistake in noting the answer, or if any member has made a mistake in his answer, the mistake of either may be corrected. The names having been thus read over, and the mistakes, if any, corrected, the clerk counts the numbers on each side, and reports them to the presiding officer, who declares the result to the assembly.

228. The following is the mode practiced in the House of Representatives of Massachusetts (which is one of the most numerous of all the legislative bodies in this country), of taking a question by yeas and nays. The names of the members being printed on a sheet, the clerk calls them in their order; and, as each one answers, the clerk (responding to the member at the same time), places a figure in pencil, expressing the number of the answer, at the left or right of the name, according as the answer is yes or no; so that the last figure or number on each side shows the number of the answers on that side, and the two last numbers or figures represent the respective numbers of the affirmatives and negatives on the division. Thus, at the left hand of the name of the member who first answers *Yes*, the clerk places a figure 1; at the right hand of the first member who answers *No*, he also places a figure 1; the second member that answers *Yes* is marked 2; and so on to the end of the list; the side of the name on which the figure is placed denoting whether the answer is *Yes* or *No*, and the figure denoting the number of the answer on that side. The

affirmatives and negatives are then read separately, if necessary, though this is usually omitted; and the clerk is then prepared, by means of the last figure on each side, to give the numbers to the speaker, to be announced to the house. The names and answers are afterwards recorded on the journal.

299. In any of the modes of taking a question, in which it is first put on one side and then on the other, it is no full question until the negative as well as the affirmative has been put. Consequently, until the nagative has been put, it is in order for any member, in the same manner as if the division had not commenced, to rise and speak, make motions for amendment or otherwise, and thus renew the debate; and this whether such member was in the assembly-room, or not, when the question was put and partly taken. In such a case, the question must be put over again on the affirmative, as well as the negative side; for the reason, that members who were not in the assembly-room when the question was first put may have since come in, and also that some of those who voted may have since changed their minds. When a question is taken by yeas and nays, and the negative as well as the affirmative of the question is stated, and the voting on each side begins and proceeds at the same time, the question cannot be opened and the debate renewed after the voting has commenced.

230. If any question arises in a point of order, as, for example, as to the right or the duty of a member to vote during a division, the presiding officer must decide it peremptorily, subject to the revision and correction of the assembly after the division is over. In a case of this kind, there can be no debate, though the presiding officer may if he pleases receive the assistance of members with their advice, which they are to give sitting, in order to avoid even the appearance of a debate; but this can only be with the leave of the presiding officer, as otherwise the division might be prolonged to an inconvenient length; nor can any question be taken, for otherwise there might be division upon division without end.

231. When, from counting the assembly on a division, it appears that there is not a quorum present, there is no decision; but the matter in question continues in the same state in which it was before the division; and when afterwards resumed, whether on the same or on some future day, it must be taken up at that precise point.

CHAPTER XIV.

OF RECONSIDERATION.

232. It is a principle of parliamentary law, upon which many of the rules and proceedings previously stated are founded, that when a question has been once put to a deliberative assembly, and decided whether in the affirmative or negative, that decision is the judgment of the assembly, and cannot be again brought into question.

233. This principle holds equally, although the question proposed is not the identical question which has already been decided, but only its equivalent; as, for example, where the negative of one question amounts to the affirmative of the other, and leaves no other alternative, these questions are the equivalents of one another, and a decision of the one necessarily concludes the other.

234. A common application of the rule as to equivalent questions occurs in the case of an amendment proposed by striking out words; in which it is the invariable practice to consider the negative of striking out as equivalent to the affirmative of agreeing; so that to put a question on agreeing, after a question on striking out is negatived, would be, in effect, to put the same question twice over.

235. The principle above stated does not apply so as to prevent putting the same question in the different stages of any proceeding, as, for example, in legislative bodies, the different stages of a bill: so, in considering reports of committees, questions already taken and decided before the subject was referred may be again proposed; and in like manner orders of the assembly, and instructions or references to committees, may be discharged or rescinded.

236. The inconvenience of this rule, which is still maintained in all its strictness in the British Parliament (though divers expedients are there resorted to, to counteract or evade it), has led to the introduction into the parliamentary practice of this country, of the motion for *reconsideration;* which, while it recognizes and upholds the rule in all its ancient strictness, yet allows a deliberative assembly, for sufficient reasons, to relieve itself from the embarrassment and inconvenience which would occasionally result from a strict enforcement of the rule in a particular case.

237. It has now come to be a common practice in all our deliberative assemblies, and may consequently be considered as a principle of the common parliamentary law of this country, to reconsider a vote already passed, whether affirmatively or negatively.

238. For this purpose, a motion is made and seconded, in the usual manner, that such a vote be reconsidered; and, if this motion prevails, the matter stands before the assembly in precisely the same state and condition, and the same questions are to be put in relation to it, as if the vote reconsidered had never been passed. Thus, if an amendment by inserting words is moved and rejected, the same amendment cannot be moved again, but the assembly may reconsider the vote by which it was rejected; and then the question will recur on the amendment, precisely as if the former vote had never been passed

239. It is usual, in legislative bodies, to regulate by a special rule the time, manner, and by whom, a motion to reconsider may be made; thus, for example, that it shall be made only on the same or a succeeding day, by a member who voted with the majority, or at a time when there are as many members present as there were when the vote was passed; but, where there is no special rule on the subject, a motion to reconsider must be considered in the same light as any other motion, and as subject to no other rules. Proceedings analogous in principle to the motion for reconsideration appear occasionally, though very rarely, to have been admitted in the British Parliament; but it is believed the motion to reconsider, as in use in this country, is of American origin. The motion is, in form, that such a vote be reconsidered; in substance, that the subject of that vote be again considered, upon the original motion, as if that motion had never been considered and passed upon. On the motion to reconsider, the whole subject is as much open for debate as if it had not been discussed at all; and, if the motion prevail, the subject is again open for debate on the original motion, in the same manner as if that motion had never been put to the question.

CHAPTER XV.

OF COMMITTEES.

SECT. 1. THEIR NATURE AND FUNCTIONS

240. It is usual, in all deliberative assemblies, to take the preliminary (sometimes also the intermediate) measures, and to prepare matters to be acted upon in the assembly, by means of committees composed either of members specially selected for the particular occasion, or appointed beforehand for all matters of the same nature.

241. Committees of the first kind are usually called *select*, the others *standing*—though the former appellation belongs with equal propriety to both—in order to distinguish them from another form of committee, constituted either for a particular occasion or for all cases of a certain kind, which is composed of all the members of the assembly, and therefore denominated a *committee of the whole*.

242. The advantages of proceeding in this mode are manifold. It enables a deliberative assembly to do many things which, from its numbers, it would otherwise be unable to do; to accomplish a much greater quantity of business, by dividing it among the members, than could possibly be accomplished if the whole body were obliged to devote itself to each particular subject; and to act in the preliminary and preparatory steps with a greater degree of freedom than is compatible with the forms of proceeding usually observed in full assembly.

243. Committees are appointed to consider a particular subject either at large or under special instructions; to obtain information in reference to a matter before the assembly, either by personal inquiry and inspection, or by the examination of witnesses; and to digest and put into the proper form, for the adoption of the assembly, all resolutions, votes, orders, and other papers, with which they may be charged. Committees are commonly said to be the "eyes and ears" of the assembly; it is equally true, that for certain purposes they are also its "head and hands."

244. The powers and functions of committees depend chiefly upon the general authority and particular instructions given them by the assembly at the time of their appointment;

but they may also be, and very often are, further instructed whilst they are in the exercise of their functions; and sometimes it even happens that these additional instructions wholly change the nature of a committee, by charging it with inquiries quite different from those for which it was originally established.

SECT. II. THEIR APPOINTMENT.

245. In the manner of appointing committees, there is no difference between standing and other select committees, as to the mode of selecting the members to compose them; and in reference to committees of the whole, as there is no selection of members, they are appointed simply by the order of the assembly.

246. In the appointment of select committees, the first thing to be done is to fix upon the number. This is usually effected in the same manner that blanks are filled; namely, by members proposing, without the formality of a motion, such numbers as they please, which are then separately put to the question, beginning with the largest, and going regularly through to the smallest, until the assembly comes to a vote.

247. The number being settled, there are three modes of selecting the members; to-wit, by the appointment of the presiding officer, by ballot, and by nomination and vote of the assembly: the first sometimes in virtue of a standing rule, sometimes in pursuance of a vote of the assembly in a particular case; the second always in pursuance of a vote; the last in the usual course where no vote is taken.

248. When a committee has been appointed in reference to a particular subject, it is the duty of the secretary of the assembly to make out a list of the members, together with a certified copy of the authority or instructions under which they are to act, and to give the papers to the member first named on the list of the committee, if convenient; but, otherwise, to any other member of the committee.

SECT. III. THEIR ORGANIZATION, AND MANNER OF PROCEEDING.

249. The person first named on a committee acts as its chairman, or presiding officer, so far as relates to the preliminary steps to be taken, and is usually permitted to do so through

the whole proceedings; but this is a matter of courtesy, every committee having a right to elect its own chairman, who presides over it, and makes the report of its proceedings to the assembly.

250. A committee is properly to receive directions from the assembly, as to the time and place of its meeting, and cannot regularly sit at any other time or place; and it may be ordered to sit immediately, whilst the assembly is sitting, and make its report forthwith.

251. When no directions are given, a committee may select its own time and place of meeting; but, without a special order to that effect, it is not at liberty to sit whilst the assembly sits; and, if a committee is sitting when the assembly comes to order after an adjournment, it is the duty of the chairman to rise instantly, on being certified of it, and, with the other members, to attend the service of the assembly.

252. In regard to its forms of proceeding, a committee is essentially a miniature assembly: it can only act when regularly assembled together as a committee, and not by separate consultation and consent of the members, nothing being the agreement or report of a committee but what is agreed to in that manner; a vote taken in committee is as binding as a vote of the assembly; a majority of the members is necessary to constitute a quorum for business, unless a larger or smaller number has been fixed by the assembly itself; and a committee has full power over whatever may be committed to it, except that it is not at liberty to change the title or subject.

The statement contained in this paragraph, that a majority of the members of a committee is sufficient to constitute a quorum for proceeding with business, unless the number should be otherwise fixed by the assembly itself, was made upon the supposition that in this country the rule had been so settled by usage. It should also have been stated at the same time, as the parliamentary rule, that the presence of every member is essential, and that of a majority is not sufficient, to constitute a committee. In all places, therefore, where there is any doubt as to the existence of the usage, it will be proper that the number of the quorum should be fixed by the assembly itself, either by a general rule, or by the order for the appointment of the committee.

253. A committee which is under no directions as to the time and place of meeting may meet when and where it

pleases, and adjourn itself from day to day or otherwise, until it has gone through with the business committed to it; but if it is ordered to meet at a particular time, and it fails of doing so for any cause, the committee is closed, and cannot act without being newly directed to sit.

254. Disorderly words spoken in a committee must be written down in the same manner as in the assembly; but the committee, as such, can do nothing more than report them to the assembly for its animadversion; neither can a committee punish disorderly conduct of any other kind, but must report it to the assembly.

255. When any paper is before a committee, whether select or of the whole, it may either have originated with the committee, or have been referred to them; and in either case, when the paper comes to be considered, the course is for it to be first read entirely through by the clerk of the committee, if there is one, otherwise by the chairman; and then to be read through again by paragraphs, by the chairman, pausing at the end of each paragraph, and putting questions for amending, either by striking out or inserting, if proposed. This is the natural order of proceeding in considering and amending any paper, and is to be strictly adhered to in the assembly; but the same strictness does not seem necessary in a committee.

256. If the paper before a committee is one which has originated with the committee, questions are put on amendments proposed, but not on agreeing to the several paragraphs of which it is composed, separately, as they are gone through with; this being reserved for the close, when a question is to be put on the whole, for agreeing to the paper as amended or unamended.

257. If the paper be one which has been referred to the committee, they proceed as in the other case to put questions of amendment, if proposed, but no final question on the whole; because all parts of the paper, having been passed upon if not adopted by the assembly as the basis of its action, stand of course, unless altered or struck out by a vote of the assembly. And even if the committee are opposed to the whole paper, and are of opinion that it cannot be made good by amendments, they have no authority to reject it: they must report it back to the assembly, without amendments (specially stating their objections, if they think proper), and there make their opposition as individual members.[1]

258. In the case of a paper originating with a committee, they may erase or interline it as much as they please; though, when finally agreed to, it ought to be reported in a clear draft, fairly written, without erasure or interlineation.

259. But, in the case of a paper referred to a committee, they are not at liberty to erase, interline, blot, disfigure, or tear it in any manner; but they must in a separate paper set down the amendments they have agreed to report, stating the words which are to be inserted or omitted, and the places where the amendments are to be made, by reference to the paragraph or section, line, and word.

260. If the amendments agreed to are very numerous and minute, the committee may report them all together, in the form of a new and amended draft.

261. When a committee has gone through the paper, or agreed upon a report on the subject, which has been referred to them, it is then moved by some member, and thereupon voted, that the committee rise, and that the chairman or some other member make their report to the assembly.

Sect. IV.. Their Report.

262. When the report of a committee is to be made, the chairman, or member appointed to make the report, standing in his place, informs the assembly that the committee to whom was referred such a subject or paper have, according to order, had the same under consideration, and have directed him to make a report thereon, or to report the same with sundry amendments, or without amendment, as the case may be, which he is ready to do when the assembly shall please; and he or any other member may then move that the report be now received. On this motion being made, the question is put whether the assembly will receive the report at that time; and a vote passes accordingly, either to receive it then, or fixing upon some fitting time for its reception. In this and the succeeding paragraphs, relating to the report of a committee, no notice is taken of what is commonly known in this country as a *minority report;* in reference to which, it being now a

1 This rule is not applicable, of course, to those cases in which the *subject* as well as the *form or details* of a paper, is referred to the committee.

proceeding of frequent occurrence, though not strictly parliamentary, some explanation seems necessary and proper.

The report of a committee being the conclusion which is agreed to by a majority of the members, the dissenting or not-agreeing members, according to strict parliamentary practice, would have no other mode of bringing their views before the assembly, than as individual members. Inasmuch, however, as such members may be supposed to have given the subject equal consideration with the other members of the committee, and may therefore be in possession of views and opinions equally worthy of the attention of the assembly, the practice has become general in the legislative assemblies of this country, to allow members in the minority to present their views and conclusions in the parliamentary form of a report, which is accordingly known by the somewhat incongruous appellation of a minority report. Any two or more of the members may unite in such a report, or each one of them may express his views in a separate document.

A minority report is not recognized as a report of the committee; or acted upon as such; it is received by courtesy, and allowed to accompany the report, as representing the opinions of the minority; and, in order to its being adopted by the assembly, it must be moved as an amendment to the report, when that comes to be considered.

263. At the time when, by the order of the assembly, the report is to be received, the chairman reads it in his place, and then delivers it, together with all the papers connected with it, to the clerk at the table, where it is again read, and then lies on the table until the time assigned, or until it suits the convenience of the assembly to take it up for consideration.

264. If the report of the committee is of a paper with amendments, the chairman reads the amendments with the coherence in the paper, whatever it may be, and opens the alterations, and the reasons of the committee for the amendments, until he has gone through the whole; and, when the report is read at the clerk's table, the amendments only are read without the coherence.

265. In practice, however, the formality of a motion and vote on the reception of a report is usually dispensed with; though if any objection is made, or if the presiding officer sees any informality in the report, he should decline receiving it without a motion and vote; and a report, if of any consid-

erable length, is seldom read, either by the chairman in his place or by the clerk at the table, until it is taken up for consideration. In legislative assemblies, the printing of reports generally renders the reading of them unnecessary.

266. The report of a committee being made and received, the committee is dissolved, and can act no more without a new power; but their authority may be revived by a vote, and the same matter recommitted to them. If a report, when offered to the assembly, is not received, the committee is not thereby discharged, but may be ordered to sit again, and a time and place appointed accordingly.

267. When a subject or paper has been once committed, and a report made upon it, it may be recommitted either to the same or a different committee; and, if a report is recommitted before it has been agreed to by the assembly, what has heretofore passed in the committee is of no validity, the whole question being again before the committee as if nothing had passed there in relation to it.

268. The report of a committee may be made in three different forms; namely, *first*, it may contain merely a statement of facts, reasoning, or opinion, in relation to the subject of it, without any specific conclusion; or, *second*, a statement of facts, reasoning, or opinion, concluding with a resolution or series of resolutions or some other specific proposition; or, *third*, it may consist merely of such resolutions or propositions, without any introductory part.

269. The first question on a report is, in strictness, on receiving it, though in practice this question is seldom or never made; the consent of the assembly, especially in respect to the report of a committee of the whole, being generally presumed unless objection is made. When a report is received, whether by general consent or upon a question and vote, the committee is discharged; and the report becomes the basis of the future proceedings of the assembly, on the subject to which it relates.

270. At the time assigned for the consideration of a report, it may be treated and disposed of precisely like any other proposition (54 to 72); and may be amended in the same manner (73 to 128), both in the preliminary statement, reasoning, or opinion, if it contain any, and in the resolutions or other propositions with which it concludes; so if it consist merely of a statement, &c., without resolutions, or of resolutions, &c., without any introductory part.

271. The final question on a report, whatever form it may have, is usually stated on its acceptance; and, when accepted, the whole report is adopted by the assembly, and becomes the statement, reasoning, opinion, resolution, or other act, as the case may be, of the assembly; the doings of a committee when agreed to, adopted, or accepted, becoming the acts of the assembly, in the same manner as if done originally by the assembly itself, without the intervention of a committee.

272. It would be better, however, and in stricter accordance with parliamentary rules, to state the final question on a report according to the form of it. If the report contain merely a statement of facts, reasoning, or opinion, the question should be on acceptance; if it also conclude with resolutions or other specific propositions of any kind—the introductory part being consequently merged in the conclusion—the question should be on agreeing to the resolutions, or on adopting the order or other proposition, or on passing or coming to the vote recommended by the committee; and the same should be the form of the question when the report consists merely of resolutions, &c., without any introductory part.

Sect. V. Committee of the Whole.

273. When a subject has been ordered to be referred to a committee of the whole, the form of going from the assembly into committee is, for the presiding officer, at the time appointed for the committee to sit, on motion made and seconded for the purpose, to put the question that the assembly do now resolve itself into a committee of the whole, to take into consideration such a matter, naming it. If this question is determined in the affirmative, the result is declared by the presiding officer, who, naming some member to act as chairman of the committee, then leaves the chair, and takes a seat elsewhere like any other member; and the person appointed chairman seats himself, not in the chair of the assembly, but at the clerk's table.

274. The chairman named by the presiding officer is generally acquiesced in by the committee; though, like all other committees, a committee of the whole have a right to elect a chairman for themselves; some member, by general consent, putting the question. The naming of a chairman of a committee of the whole, by the presiding officer, which is supposed to be the usual practice in the legislative assemblies of

this country, ordinarily takes place in virtue of a special rule. Where this is the case, the member so named becomes the chairman of the committee. But, where there is no such rule, some member is called upon by one or more of the members of the committee to take the chair; and if no objection is made, or no other member called to the chair, the member so designated becomes the chairman. If objection is made, or any other member is called to the chair, the chairman must be regularly chosen. But, in order to do this, the presiding officer should resume the chair, and the choice be made by the assembly, acting as such, and not in committee. The statement in § 273, that, where a chairman is to be appointed by vote, the question is to be put by some member in the committee, though laid down by Mr. Jefferson on the authority of an old writer on parliamentary proceedings, is not sanctioned by Hatsell, or borne out by the modern practice of the British Parliament, in both houses of which the practice as above stated prevails.

275. The same number of members is necessary to constitute a quorum of a committee of the whole, as of the assembly; and, if the members present fall below a quorum at any time in the course of the proceedings, the chairman on a motion and question rises; the presiding officer thereupon resumes the chair; and the chairman informs the assembly (he can make no other report) of the cause of the dissolution of the committee.

276. When the assembly is in committee of the whole, it is the duty of the presiding officer to remain in the assembly-room, in order to be at hand to resume the chair in case the committee should be broken up by some disorder or for want of a quorum, or should rise, either to report progress, or to make their final report upon the matter committed to them.

277. The clerk of the assembly does not act as clerk of the committee (this is the duty of the assistant clerk in legislative bodies), or record in his journal any of the proceedings or votes of the committee, but only their report as made to the assembly.

278. The proceedings in a committee of the whole, though in general similar to those in the assembly itself and in other committees, are yet different in some respects, the principal of which are the following:

279. *First.* The previous question cannot be moved in a

committee of the whole. The only means of avoiding an improper discussion is, to move that the committee rise; and, if it is apprehended that the same discussion will be attempted again on returning again into committee, the assembly can discharge the committee, and proceed itself with the business, keeping down any improper discussion by means of the previous question.[1]

280. *Second.* A committee of the whole cannot adjourn, like other committees, to some other time or place, for the purpose of going on with and completing the consideration of the subject referred to them; but, if their business is unfinished at the usual time for the assembly to adjourn, or for any other reason they wish to proceed no further at a particular time, the form of proceeding is, for some member to move that the committee rise, report progress, and ask leave to sit again; and, if this motion prevails, the chairman rises, the presiding officer resumes the chair of the assembly, and the chairman of the committee informs him that the committee of the whole have, according to order, had under their consideration such a matter, and have made some progress therein,[2] but, not having had time to go through with the same, have directed him to ask leave for the committee to sit again. The presiding officer thereupon puts a question on giving the committee leave to sit again, and also on the time when the assembly will again resolve itself into a committee. If leave to sit again is not granted, the committee is of course dissolved.

280. *Third.* In a committee of the whole, every member may speak as often as he pleases, provided he can obtain the floor; whereas, in the assembly itself, no member can speak more than once.

281. *Fourth.* A committee of the whole cannot refer any matter to another committee; but other committees may and do frequently exercise their functions, and expedite their business, by means of sub-committees of their own members.

282. *Fifth.* In a committee of the whole, the presiding officer of the assembly has a right to take a part in the debate and proceedings in the same manner as any other member.

1 If the object be to stop debate, that can only be effected in the same manner, unless there is a special rule as to the time of speaking, or to taking a subject out of committee.

2 If it is a second time, the expression is, "some further progress," &c.

283. *Sixth.* A committee of the whole, like a select committee, has no authority to punish a breach of order, whether of a member or stranger; but can only rise and report the matter to the assembly, who may proceed to punish the offender. Disorderly words must be written down in committee, in the same manner as in the assembly, and reported to the assembly for their animadversion.

284. The foregoing are the principal points of difference between proceedings in the assembly and in committees of the whole; in most other respects they are precisely similar. It is sometimes said, that, in a committee of the whole, it is not necessary that a motion should be seconded: there is no foundation, however, either in reason or parliamentary usage for this opinion.

285. When a committee of the whole have gone through with the matter referred to them, a member moves that the committee rise, and that the chairman (or some other member) report their proceedings to the assembly; which being resolved, the chairman rises and goes to his place, the presiding officer resumes the chair of the assembly, and the chairman informs him that the committee have gone through with the business referred to them, and that he is ready to make their report when the assembly shall think proper to receive it. The time for receiving the report is then agreed upon; and, at the time appointed, it is made and received in the same manner as that of any other committee, (261).

286. It sometimes happens, that the formality of a motion and question as to the time of receiving a report is dispensed with. If the assembly are ready to receive it at the time, they cry out, "Now, now," whereupon the chairman proceeds; if not then ready, some other time is mentioned, as "to-morrow" or "Monday," and that time is fixed by general consent. But, when it is not the general sense of the assembly to receive the report at the time, it is better to agree upon and fix the time by a motion and question.

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

287. In bringing this treatise to a close, it will not be deemed out of place to make a suggestion or two for the benefit of those persons who may be called upon to act as presiding officers for the first time.

288. One of the most essential parts of the duty of a presiding officer is, to give the closest attention to the proceedings of the assembly, and especially to what is said by every member who speaks. Without the first, confusion will be almost certain to occur; wasting the time, perhaps disturbing the harmony of the assembly. The latter is not merely a decent manifestation of respect for those who have elevated him to an honorable station; but it tends greatly to encourage timid or diffident members, and to secure them a patient and attentive hearing; and it often enables the presiding officer, by a timely interference, to check offensive language in season to prevent scenes of tumult and disorder, such as have sometimes disgraced our legislative halls.

289. It should be constantly kept in mind by a presiding officer, that, in a deliberative assembly, there can regularly be but one thing done or doing at the same time. This caution he will find particularly useful to him whenever a quarrel arises between two members in consequence of words spoken in debate. In such a case, he will do well to require that the regular course of proceeding shall be strictly pursued; and will take care to restrain members from interfering in any other manner. In general, the solemnity and deliberation with which this mode is attended will do much to allay heat and excitement, and to restore harmony and order to the assembly.

290. A presiding officer will often find himself embarrassed by the difficulty, as well as the delicacy, of deciding points of order, or giving directions as to the manner of proceeding. In such cases, it will be useful for him to recollect that—

THE GREAT PURPOSE OF ALL RULES AND FORMS IS TO SUBSERVE THE WILL OF THE ASSEMBLY, RATHER THAN TO RESTRAIN IT; TO FACILITATE, AND NOT TO OBSTRUCT, THE EXPRESSION OF THEIR DELIBERATE SENSE.

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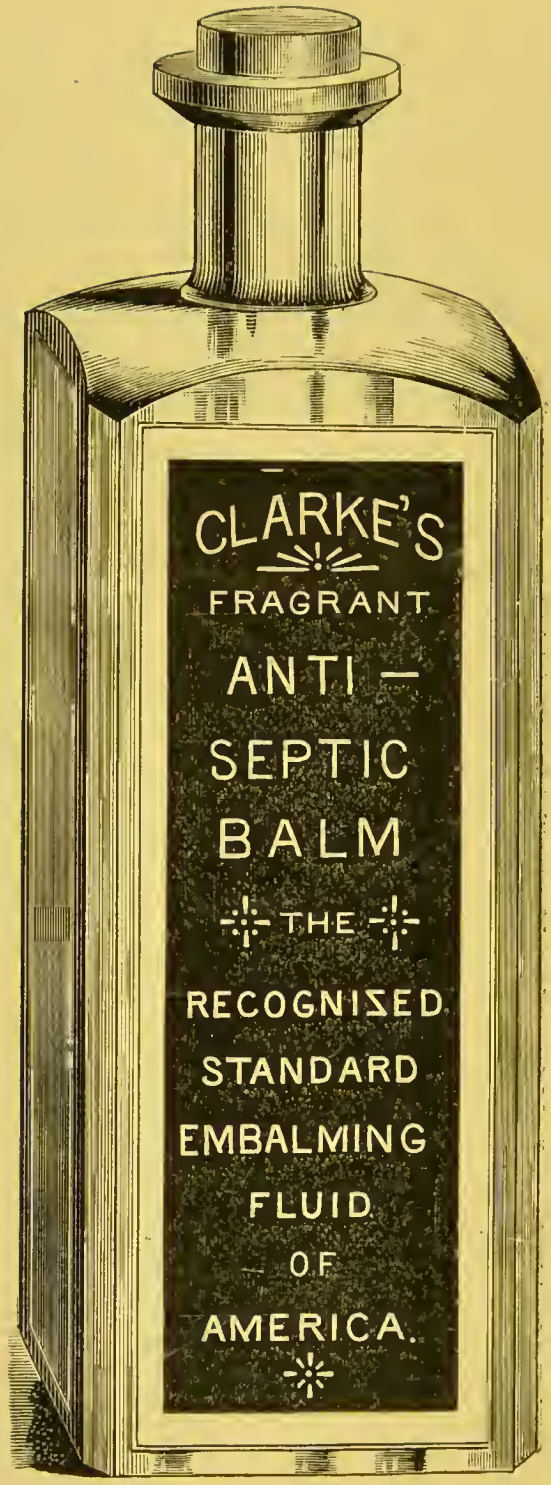
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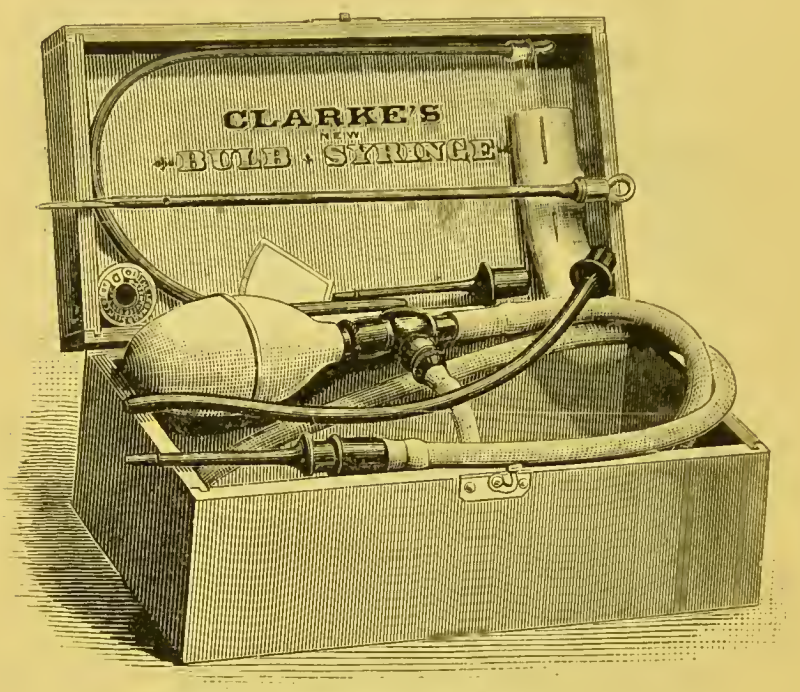
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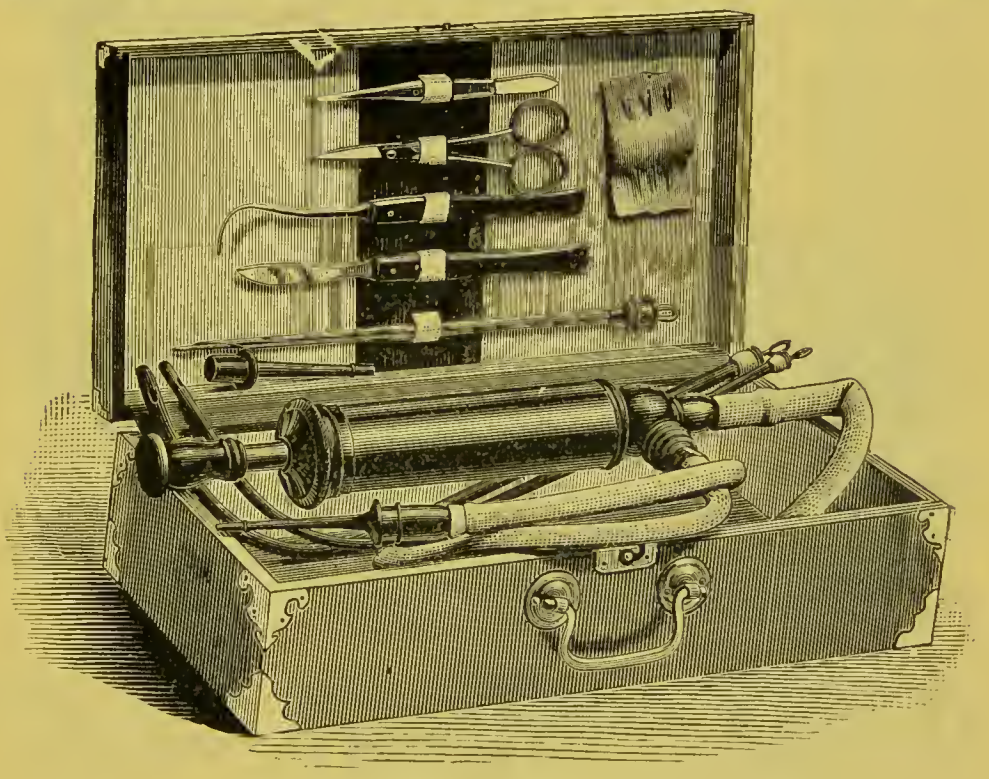
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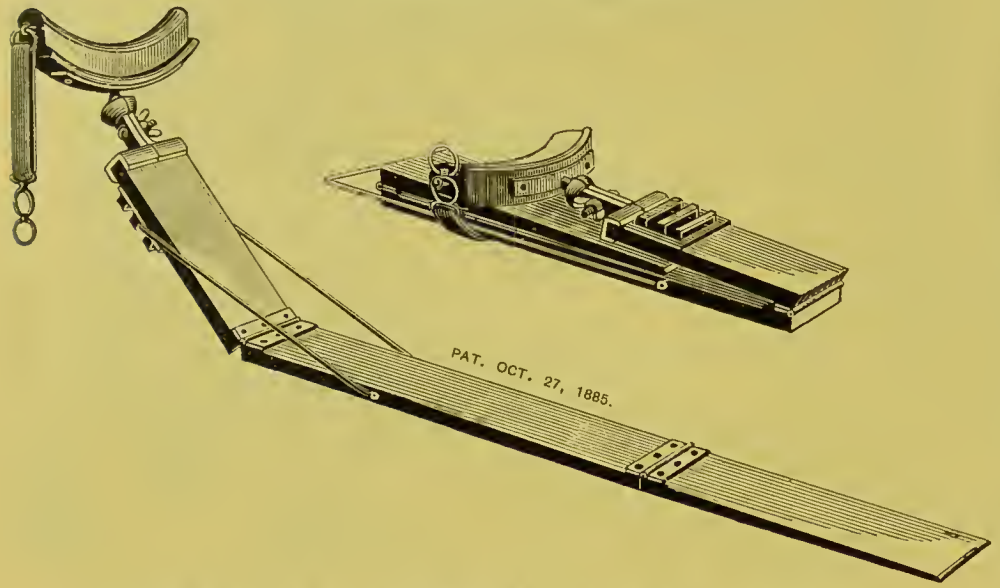
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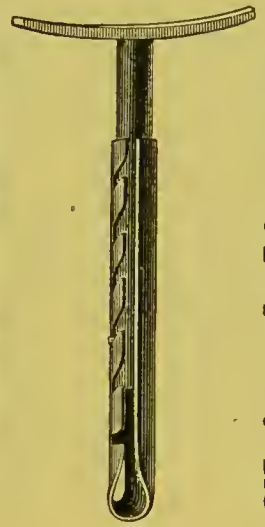
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CLARKE'S

CLEANSING

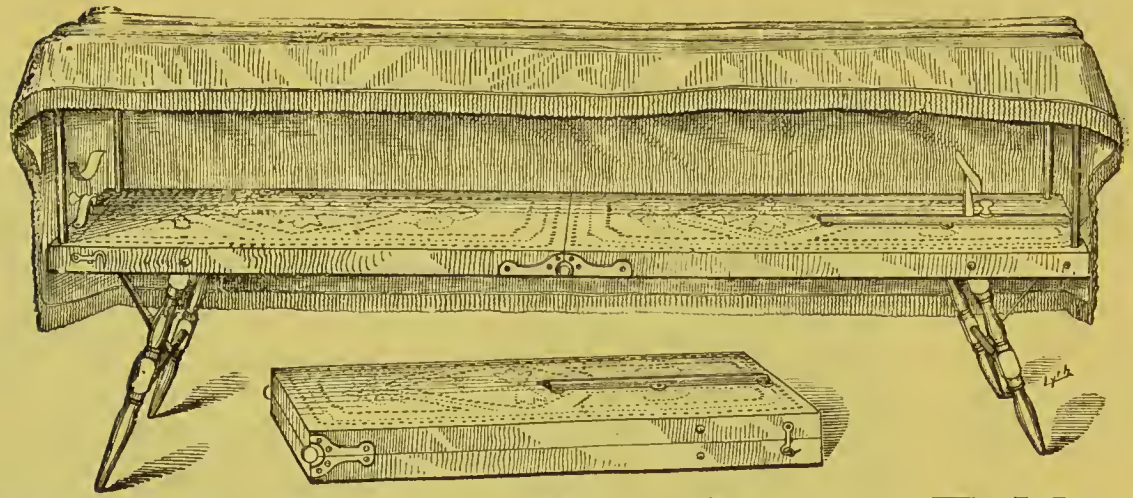
COMPOUND.

Will clean Tarnished Name-plates, Thumb-screws, Escutcheons, Studs (tin or solid), Ornaments, Handles, Mouldings, etc., also Hearse Trimmings, Ornaments, Railings, etc., and all Plated Metals on Carriages, Buggies, Sleighs, Harness, Buckles and Ornaments, and every Tarnished, Plated Article.

TRY IT AND YOU WILL ALWAYS USE IT.

DIRECTIONS:

Pour the Solution into an earthen, porcelain, ranite or glass vessel, and dip the plate or sheet in for a moment or two, and then rinse off in clear water and dry with fine saw-dust. This solution will not restore articles when the plating is gone, but simply destroy the tarnish.



The Perfection Embalming Table.

Patented Feb. 22, '81.

We have effected improvements in the Frame, Supporters, Hinges, Veneers and Canopy, changing the patterns so as to furnish a greater degree of strength and solidity.

This Table now possesses various exceptional features that every practical Undertaker will value and appreciate.

Head and Foot Rests adjustable. Cherry Frames with Nickle Plated Trimmings. Perforated Three-Ply Veneers used for bottoms. Weight of large size 25 lbs.

EVERY TABLE WARRANTED TO GIVE SATISFACTION.

No. 1. 6 feet, without canopy, $16 00. **No. 11 6 feet, with canopy, $19 50**
No. 3. 4 feet, " " 13 00. **No. 13. 4 feet, " " 16 00**

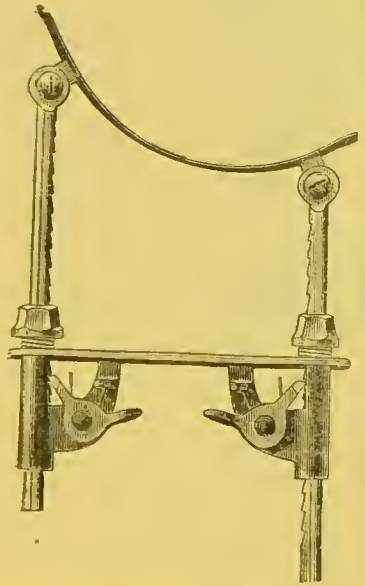
Terms 90 days net, or 10 per cent. discount for Cash within 30 days.

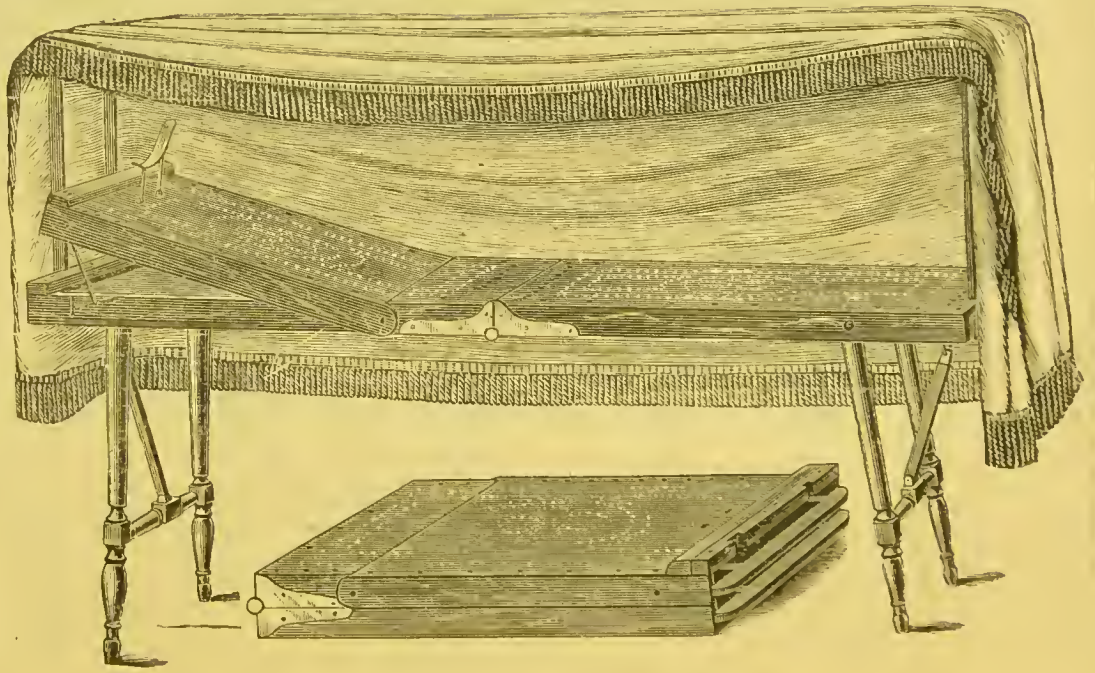
Address your orders to the

CLARKE CHEMICAL WORKS, Springfield, Ohio.

GLEASON'S IMPROVED FOLDING COOLING BOARD.

HEAD REST.





Patented April 12, 1881

In presenting our "Cooling Board" to the profession, we do so with the fullest assurance that it will meet a want long felt, and help to complete the furniture that EVERY undertaker needs; for the ice and ice box, as the profession advances, must be numbered with the things that are past. Knowing that this must be the result, I have carefully studied and accomplished my object. It is admitted by all who have used it, that we have the most convenient and perfect article of the kind ever introduced. It is made of the best walnut, fine turned legs, well braced, with head rest, hinges, etc., of best brass, nickle plated. The top is of birch veneered, or what is known as the "Gardner Patent," well perforated. The Canopy Rack is so arranged as to be entirely out of the way in case it is not used.

Your attention is especially called to the facilities for raising the body to any desired angle. Undertakers are well aware that in nearly every case blood will settle in the back of the neck. This is avoided by the use of the COOLING BOARD, and the blood caused to settle in the body, a great DESIDERATUM in the appearance of a corpse. The raising of the body may not be required in ALL cases, as the "Board" of itself is on an incline of 2½ inches. When necessary, however, it does not interfere with the canopy, as it is entirely detached from the rack, and leaves it free to raise at any time it should be deemed expedient, without removing canopy.

Every Board is Manufactured Under our Immediate Supervision, and None Shipped that are Not Perfect.

PRICES, CANOPY INCLUDED:

Length.	**6**	**Feet**	**3**	**Inches.**	**Width.**	**1**	**Foot**	**7**	**Inches.**	**Height.**	**25**	**Inches.**		**$23.00**
"	6	"			"	1	"	7	"	"	25	"		**22.00**
"	5	"	6	"	"	1	"	5	"	"	23	"		**20.00**
"	4	"	4	"	"	1	"	4	"	"	18	"		**18.00**

TERMS: THIRTY DAYS NET.

WEIGHT OF BOARD, 15 TO 22 POUNDS. EXTRA SIZES MADE TO ORDER.

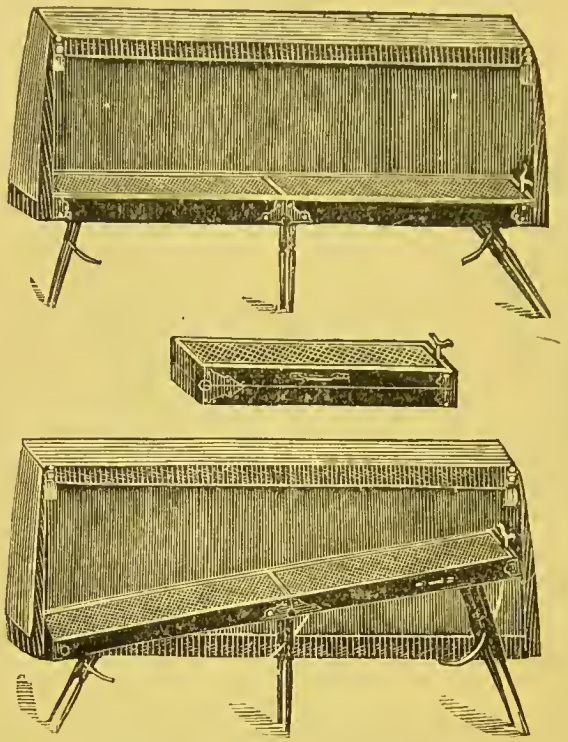
FOR SALE BY THE

CLARKE CHEMICAL WORKS,

J. H. CLARKE, Manager. **Springfield, Ohio.**

SHAW'S LATEST IMPROVED

Embalming and Laying-out Board.



Patented October 6, 1885.

The addition of the middle legs adds greatly to the strength of the board; and by adjusting the end legs with malleable ratchet braces, the board can be placed in any position required. The board is furnished without the center legs, and by a slight change in construction the same strength is attained. They are guaranteed to hold a weight of 400 pounds, while the board itself will not weigh 10 to 20 lbs.—less than any board on the market.

IS SOLD ON A POSITIVE GUARANTEE.

PRICE LIST.

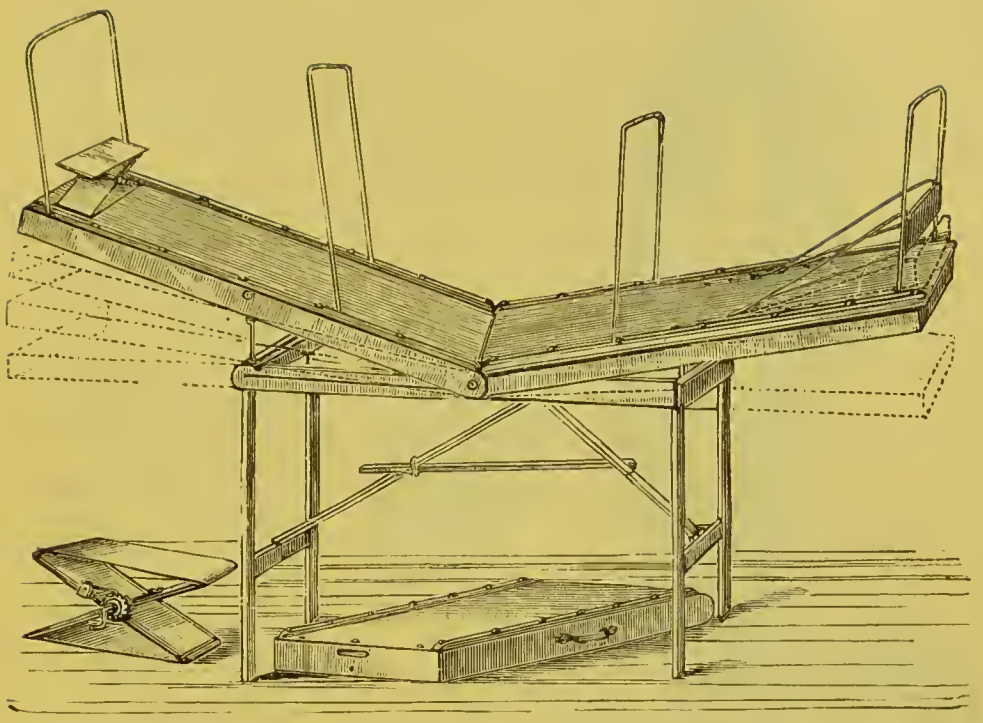
No. 1—Length 6 feet 2 inches, width 20 inches . . .	$25 00
No. 2—Length 5 feet 8 inches, width 19 inches . . .	20 00
No. 3—Length 4 feet 6 inches, width 15 inches . . .	15 00
A full set of three for	50 00
Nos. 1 and 3	35 00

TERMS.

Ten per cent. off for thirty days. Address

THE CLARKE CHEMICAL WORKS,
Springfield, Ohio.

ACME



Embalming and Cooling Table.

This table is the outgrowth of an experience of more than eighteen years of practical Embalming, and over thirty years in Undertaking, and embodies the requisites and conveniences for these professional purposes. They are strong, and easy to manipulate.

The frames are made of ash, and the tops of three thicknesses of birch veneers. It has a flexible, graduating pillow, and adjustable foot-rest to support the ball of the foot, when required, as well as the heel.

The folding-bows for supporting sheets or canopy, as also the rest of the metal trimmings, are nickel-plated. All, including an india-rubber cloth for protecting the table when in use, are carried inside, leaving ample space for instruments, cloth, cotton, etc. All, except large supplies of fluids, can be enclosed entirely from view.

The table, when closed, presents the appearance of a long, thin box, with nothing to suggest to the uninitiated a thought as to the use for which it is intended. It has a round leather handle on one side, by which it can be easily carried with one hand.

Full directions accompany each table.

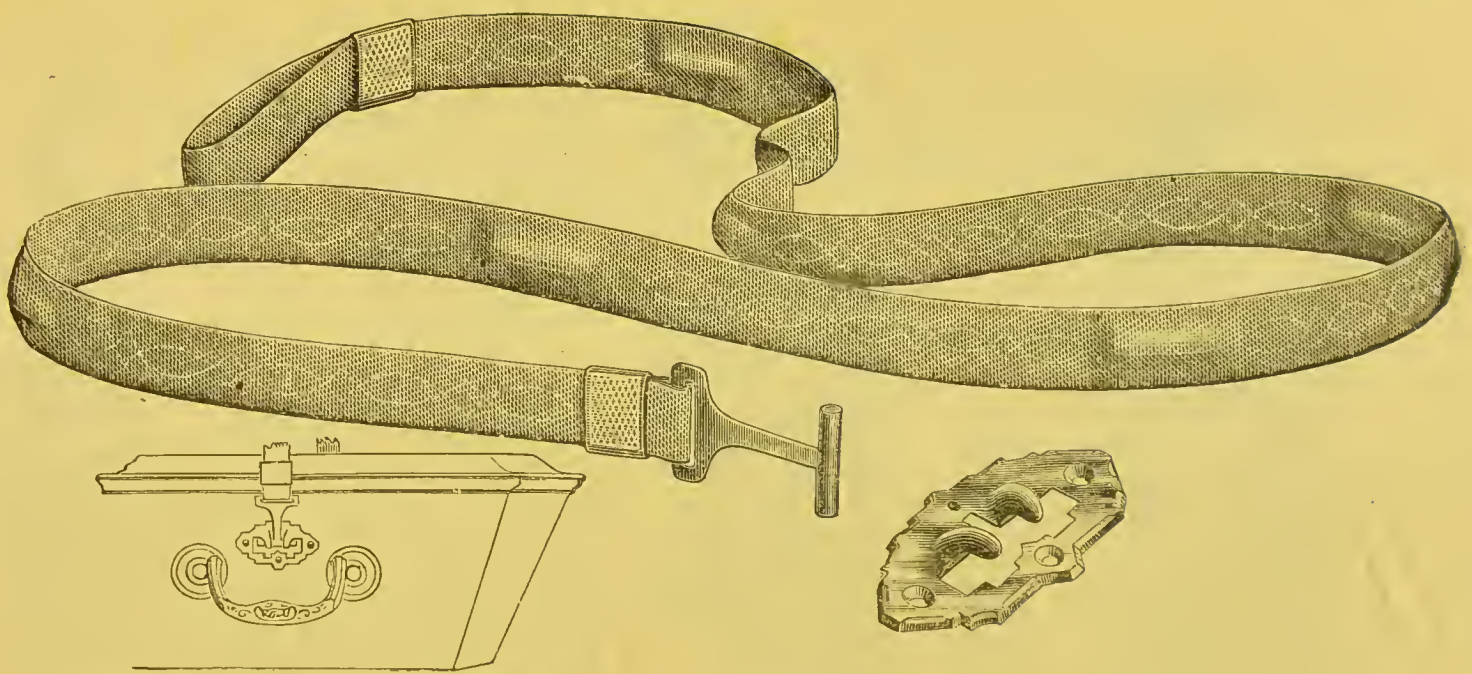
THE ORDINARY SIZE.

Length, when spread, - - 6 feet. Width, - - 1 foot 6 inches.

The adjustable foot-board allows of extension or erection.

Price, including Canopy, $30.00.

OTHER SIZES MADE TO ORDER.



Showing Bracket Attached to Coffin.

PERFECTION LOWER STRAP.

FOR LOWERING CASKETS AND CASES INTO THE GRAVE; OPERATION SIMPLE AND EASY.

This Strap embodies all the improvements suggested by practical experience, and will be found admirably adapted to its purpose. The Strap is made of two-ply, inclosed in 1¾ inch tubular tan-colored webbing, with hand-grips inserted at convenient intervals; four straps in a set. The attachments, or brackets, are best malleable iron, finished in nickle and ebony; four are required for each coffin; warranted to support a weight of 1,000 lbs., properly attached.

PERFECTION LOWER STRAP AND BRACKETS.—One set of straps (four) $5 00.

BRACKETS (for attaching to Case or Casket)—No. 7125—Nickle plated, per dozen, 95 cts.; No. 7126—Ebony finish, per dozen, 30 cts. Put up one dozen in a box.

Manufactured for the CLARKE CHEMICAL WORKS, Springfield, Ohio.